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PERCEPTIONS AND REPORTED BEHAVIORS OF PARTICIPANTS IN A  
TEACHER STRIKE

*The University of Arizona*

PH.D.

1980

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**PERCEPTIONS AND REPORTED BEHAVIORS OF PARTICIPANTS  
IN A TEACHER STRIKE**

by

**Frazier Harrison Barbery**

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A Dissertation Submitted to the Faculty of the  
DEPARTMENT OF SECONDARY EDUCATION  
In Partial Fulfillment of the Requirements  
For the Degree of  
DOCTOR OF PHILOSOPHY  
In the Graduate College  
THE UNIVERSITY OF ARIZONA

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A handwritten signature in black ink, appearing to read "David D. Bailey", is written over a horizontal line. The signature is cursive and extends to the right of the line.

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## ABSTRACT

This study focused on a 1978 teacher strike in the Tucson Unified School District, Pima County, Arizona, and was designed to explore patterns of perceptions and behaviors reported by teachers concerning their involvement in the strike. Teacher perceptions and behaviors were examined in terms of: viewpoints concerning the issues and causes of the strike; attitudes toward the act of striking; choice to either strike or not to strike and the differing factors which may have influenced the strike decision; feelings of stress occasioned before, during, and after the strike; post-strike relationships with significant others in the school system; and feelings regarding the outcomes of the strike.

To implement the research study, a questionnaire was developed to explore teacher attitudes, viewpoints, and reported behaviors regarding various aspects of the strike. The questionnaire was distributed by the Tucson Education Association through the Tucson Unified School District mail distribution system to all 2,751 teachers of the school district. A total of 1,728 teachers participated in the study by completing and returning the questionnaire, which represents approximately 63 percent of the population.

Data for the study were derived from the questionnaire responses. The demographic data and strike behavior data were crosstabulated and their significance reported in terms of chi-square statistics. The chi-square

indicated a significant relationship between teacher strike behavior and the following demographic variables: teaching level, age, sex, teacher tenure, total years teaching, membership in a professional organization, and spouse being a teacher in the district.

Data regarding teacher perceptions and behavior were analyzed and summarized on the basis of the perceptual framework constructed for this study, which was drawn from the literature in social and perceptual psychology. Briefly it included the following five categories: Empathy; Acceptance; Stress; Adequacy; and Perceptual Framework.

The following perceptions were reported by teachers regarding:

**Issues and Causes of the Strike:** The reported issues of the strike were salary, discipline, fringe benefits, class size, teacher professionalism, and dignity. The teachers reported that the factors generating the strike were not the issues themselves, but rather the way the issues were handled by the school board, superintendent, and central administration.

**Influences Upon Strike Behavior:** The greatest influence reported by teachers regarding their strike decision was the teachers' association, followed by teachers in their own schools, family, teachers outside their schools, the media, and building principal, in that order.

**Strike Stresses:** Ninety percent of all respondents reported experiencing stress during the strike. Stress was greater among elementary teachers, female teachers, and non-striking teachers.

**Post-Strike Relationships:** Teachers reported more harmonious relationships with fellow teachers and students in their schools following the strike. Teachers reported less harmonious relationships with their supervisors.

**Strike Perceptions:** Teachers reported that the strike produced a greater sense of personal dignity for teachers.

The recommendations of the study included the following:

A school system should develop and maintain a deep philosophical commitment to the worthiness and dignity of all persons.

A continuous and effective communication process should be developed whereby school district administrator and teacher representatives can meet and interact in an atmosphere where every person is encouraged to express his viewpoints.

Teachers and school district officials should have an adequate set of board-adopted policies providing orderly processes for dealing with disputes and differences between them.

The policy that is adopted should result from the widest possible participation of all concerned groups throughout the community and the school district.

The school district, including the school board, administrators, and teaching staff should carefully plan and effectively implement a program for continuous improvement of human relationships throughout the district.

## CHAPTER 1

### INTRODUCTION

The growth of teacher militancy in America has caused this facet of public education to become highly visible. Evidence of this growing militancy can be supported by the significant growth of teacher organization membership and the number of teacher strikes across the country (Ward 1974; Donley 1977; Hashway 1977; Methvin 1979).

The education associations (National Education Association and the American Federation of Teachers) at the national, state, and local levels have grown from 774,000 in 1960 to 2.2 million in 1976 (Donley 1977). It has been estimated that this membership could reach 3.5 million by 1980 (Guthrie and Craig 1973; Donley 1977).

Between 1955 and 1966, 35 teacher strikes occurred throughout the United States. During a two-year period from 1967 to 1969 there were 245 strikes. During 1971 and 1972, strike activity declined to 89 occurrences (Guthrie and Craig 1973), but rose to a record high of 203 teacher strikes during 1975 and 1976. During the school year of 1977-78 there were 152 strikes, a number identical with the 1976-77 school year total. As of mid-October of the 1978-79 school year, there have been 130 strikes in 21 states, affecting nearly two

million students. Experts predict that the 1978-79 school year will be a record year for teacher strikes, since more are likely to occur before June 30, 1979 (Neal 1978).

In summary, teacher strikes are occurring nationally at a rate that cannot be ignored. The impact of strikes on communities can have important economic, political, and personal consequences to many people inside and outside the local school system. In short, "a teacher strike is a significant event in the public affairs of any municipality" (Flygare 1977, pp. 40-41) and is worthy of study and investigation.

With this in mind, the writer has chosen a teacher strike in a large city in which to explore teacher attitudes, viewpoints, and behaviors regarding various aspects of the strike.

#### Statement of the Problem

In a community where the major teacher organization for the first time in its history elected to strike, what patterns of perceptions were reported by teachers regarding the impact of the strike on:

1. Their viewpoints concerning various of the issues and causes of the strike?
2. Their personal attitudes toward the act of striking and the actual strike behavior?
3. Their choice to either strike or not to strike, including the differing factors which inclined them one way or the other?
4. Their feelings of stress occasioned before, during, and after the strike?

5. Their personal relationships with others significant to them in the school system before, during, and after the strike?
6. Their feelings regarding the outcomes of the strike?

#### Significance of the Problem

Many teachers still hesitate to commit themselves to the use of the strike. "Even after nearly two decades of experience with collective bargaining, many teachers are still quite ambivalent about it. They are particularly unsure of the value of their 'ultimate weapon,' the strike" (Elam 1979, p. 410). This can best be described by John E. Bell of Arizona State University in his manuscript entitled, "What Should I Say, Whoopee or Oh Damn?" He states:

Listening to the news and reading reports of teacher strikes throughout the country, and most recently in nearby Tucson, I develop strong but conflicting feelings. I alternately feel pleasure that teachers at last can and do stand up for what they believe in and disappointment that we have failed again to work out solutions to problems that require great amounts of patience, wisdom, tolerance, and empathy (Bell 1979, p. 40).

Bell states that "a strike raises many questions . . . with no easy answers--maybe no 'right' answers" (Bell 1979, p. 40). While he expresses excitement for teachers "to be assertive in the decision-making process of education," he at the same time expresses alarm "that we may be overreacting and will win a battle but lose the war" (Bell 1979, p. 40).

A review of literature shows that teacher strikes will continue in this country. Marshall O. Donley, Jr., editor of the National Education Association's newspaper, The NEA Reporter, has predicted that schools

would become a "major battleground as teachers' unions grow stronger and try to protect their members' jobs in the face of dwindling classroom enrollments" (Donley 1977, p. 76). He also states that teachers are "likely to remain activists" and that "teachers' organizations would grow stronger and continue to press their members' demands" (Donley 1977, p. 41).

In view of increasing teacher militancy and strikes, educators at all levels will have to decide what role they are going to play in such situations. "This new phenomenon demands serious study and analysis. No question is more fundamental than the issues of causes; that is, factors related to teacher strike behavior" (Ward 1974, p. 1).

The literature on school strikes indicates that there are many causes or factors related to striking. While many studies have investigated these causes, Ward (1974, p. 5) states:

The relatively recent nature of the teacher strike phenomenon precludes its having received exhaustive study at this time. Many facets of the issue remain to be surveyed before we can begin to discuss the causes of teacher strikes and means of ameliorating these causes so as to avoid the inevitable dysfunctional aspects of such work stoppages.

Ward (1974, pp. 178-179) recommends future research, noting:

The evidence in this study indicates that only a portion of the variance in teacher strike behavior has been accounted for by the orientations of the teacher. It would seem reasonable for future studies to help clarify and specify the roles of other major behavioral influences within the person such as psychological, emotional, and intellectual traits as well as influences in the environment such as financial, social, or organizational factors. Further research into teacher strike behavior is needed to specify added dimensions of the total phenomenon.

With the above in mind, this study was designed to investigate the 1978-79 Tucson Unified School District strike, seeking reactions from teachers regarding individual perceptions of a number of personal, social-psychological problems and issues which they may have experienced before, during, and after a strike. The results could be used in furthering productive relationships among school people locally and beyond.

#### Assumption Underlying the Problem

The following assumption will underlie the problem. The teachers' responses to the questionnaire will constitute a valid description and a basis for analyzing the strike.

#### Limitations of the Study

The following limitations will underlie the problem:

1. The study will be descriptive in nature.
2. The study will be limited to the Tucson Unified School District.
3. The study will be limited to written responses to a questionnaire.
4. The nature of the study places some limitations on the degree to which generalizations can be made to other populations.

#### Definitions of Terms

The following definitions are used in this study:

Teachers' Association: Organization of teachers having a common interest (Webster's Seventh New Collegiate Dictionary 1969). The

Tucson Education Association (TEA) is the major local teachers' association within the Tucson Unified School District, affiliated with the Arizona Education Association (AEA) and the National Education Association (NEA).

School Board: A group of persons, elected by popular vote, "having managerial, supervisory, or investigatory powers" (Webster's Dictionary 1969) in the operation of local public schools.

Superintendent of Schools: One who has executive oversight and charge of school operation (Webster's Dictionary 1969).

Teacher Perception: The impact of sensory stimulus on teachers. Their understanding of something or someone as a result of mental image or concept, physical sensation interpreted in the light of experience, direct or intuitive insight, and by actual observation (Webster's Dictionary 1969).

Strike: A work stoppage by employees to protest or enforce compliance with demands or conditions made on an employer (Webster's Dictionary 1969).

Stress: A person's "physical, mental, and chemical reactions to circumstances that frighten, excite, confuse, endanger, or irritate" (McNerney 1974, p. 2).

Professionalism: Relating to a profession that is characterized by:  
(a) a norm of service and code of ethics governing professional practice; (b) specialized skills and training; (c) minimum fees or

based salaries; (d) formation of professional associations; and where (e) decisions are governed by internalized professional standards (Vollmer 1966).

### Organization of the Study

The development of the problem has been presented in Chapter 1, including the statement of the problem, significance of the problem, assumptions, limitations, definitions of terms, and the organization of the study.

The remainder of the study is organized in the following manner: Chapter 2 presents the design of the study and background information; Chapter 3 presents the theoretical framework used to analyze the data; Chapter 4 is the presentation of the data; and Chapter 5 presents an analysis of the data, followed by concluding comments and recommendations.

## CHAPTER 2

### DESIGN OF THE STUDY AND BACKGROUND INFORMATION

This chapter outlines the procedures employed in this study. The study was designed to explore the patterns of perceptions and behaviors reported by teachers concerning their involvement in a teacher strike. Teacher perceptions and behaviors were examined in the following areas: (1) viewpoints concerning the issues and causes of the strike; (2) attitudes toward the act of striking and the actual strike behavior; (3) choice to either strike or not to strike and the differing factors which may have influenced the strike decision; (4) feelings of stress occasioned before, during, and after the strike; (5) relationships with significant others in the school system before, during, and after the strike; and (6) feelings regarding the outcomes of the strike.

This study was specifically designed as the first of a series of studies concerned with the 1978 teacher strike in the Tucson Unified School District. It was structured to yield data which would serve as a background for subsequent studies in the series.

Description of the Population and  
Background of the Study

The population of this study consisted of the teachers of the Tucson Unified School District, Pima County, Arizona. The names of individual teachers as well as the names and locations of schools were omitted in the interest of anonymity. The school district is the largest in Arizona, serving a metropolitan population of 468,000. The district has a school population of 55,934 students, with 2,751 teachers. It has 68 elementary schools, four adaptive education schools, 15 junior high schools, and nine senior high schools, for a total of 96 schools.

In the Tucson Unified School District, a Board of Education consisting of five elected members is the governing body. The Tucson Education Association (TEA) is the major teacher organization of the district, representing over 80 percent of all district employees.

The board, on February 21, 1978, adopted a negotiations policy which provided for negotiation between the board and employee organizations on questions of wage, hours, and fringe benefits. Between March and October 1978, the board and the Tucson Education Association participated in negotiation sessions, mediation sessions, and advisory arbitration, but failed to reach agreement as to wages, hours, and fringe benefits. As a result of this impasse, on October 1, 1978, the Tucson Education Association, for the first time in its history, elected to strike. The strike lasted five days, from Monday, October 2, through Friday, October 6, 1978. Over 70 percent

of the 2,751 teachers went out on strike against the district. The teachers voted to terminate the strike on October 8, 1978 following a consensus of representatives of the board and the Tucson Education Association. The consensus was adopted by the board on October 17, 1978.

At the time of this study, seven months after the strike, the impact on Tucson educators was still apparent. Some teachers were still feeling the personal and social-psychological effects. The varied opinions of teachers as to the results of the strike and the conditions leading to the strike were still being discussed.

#### The Development of the Questionnaire

To implement the research study, a questionnaire was developed to explore teacher attitudes, viewpoints, and reported behaviors regarding various aspects of the strike.

A search of literature in social and perceptual psychology, teacher strike material, and interviews with strike participants provided the background from which the questionnaire was developed. A teacher strike research group of eight members assisted in the formulation and development of the questionnaire.

#### Questionnaire for the Study

The questionnaire developed for this study was divided into six parts:

Part I - Background Information: Questions numbered one through ten covered each teacher's teaching level, age, sex, marital status,

number of dependents, years teaching experience, tenure, membership in professional organization, and education level. This background data enabled a comparison of teacher strike perceptions and behaviors.

Questions 11 through 21 were designed to gather data on the behavior of each teacher during the strike period.

Part II - Issues and Causes: This section of the questionnaire was designed to obtain teacher perceptions concerning the issues and causes of the strike.

Part III - Influences: This section of the questionnaire was designed to obtain the degree to which teachers felt they were influenced by others in their choice to either strike or not to strike.

Part IV - Stresses: This section of the questionnaire was designed to obtain teacher feelings of stress and worry occasioned before, during, and after the strike.

Part V - Relationships: This section of the questionnaire was designed to obtain the degree of change in teachers' personal relationships with significant others in the school system before, during, and after the strike.

Part VI - Strike Perceptions: This final section of the questionnaire was designed to obtain teacher feelings concerning the outcomes of the strike. Question 27 was designed to obtain the significant influences which may have operated on the teacher and influenced his decision(s) prior to, during, and after the strike. Question 28 was designed in

order to obtain phone numbers from those teachers who were willing to further participate in other studies pertaining to the strike.

A sample of the questionnaire appears in Appendix A.

### Procedures for the Study

The questionnaire was field tested on a small group of teachers, some of whom had experienced the teacher strike under study. Following this, the questionnaire was modified on the basis of the field test reactions.

Sample copies of the questionnaire were then sent to the administrators of the Tucson School District and officers of the Tucson Education Association for consideration. The Tucson Education Association Executive Board and Representative Assembly approved the strike study and agreed to distribute the questionnaire to the teaching staff of each school. The then-acting superintendent of the Tucson School District agreed that the Tucson Education Association was free to distribute the questionnaire to teachers within the district. The investigator contacted the Tucson Education Association faculty representative of each school by phone. He sought the cooperation of the representative in receiving the package of questionnaires as well as supervising their distribution and collection in their respective schools.

On May 21, 1979, the "Teacher Strike Project" questionnaire was distributed by the Tucson Education Association through the Tucson Unified School District mail distribution system to all 2,751 teachers of the

population. Each questionnaire was accompanied by a cover letter which included the directions for completing and returning the questionnaire and a TEA approval stamp for the strike study. Page one of the questionnaire included a statement assuring anonymity and confidentiality together with an explanation of the purposes and significance of the study. Following completion of the questionnaires at each school, the various Tucson Education Association faculty representatives collected the questionnaires and mailed them via school district mail services to the TEA office, where they were picked up by the investigator.

#### Treatment of the Data

Data for the study were derived from the questionnaire responses. The data were coded and placed on statistical data sheets. Individual data processing cards were then key punched for each questionnaire. Following this, the processing cards were processed and computer analyzed at the computer center of The University of Arizona using the Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS) program through Vogelback Computer Center, Northwestern University.

The initial analysis provided a tabulation of the frequency of coded responses. Subsequent analysis yielded crosstabulated responses where the chi-square test of independence was used to ascertain whether differences in responses within groups were essentially related or independent.

### Reporting of the Data

Following a search of literature relating to the problem statement and teacher strike behavior, concepts were developed into a perceptual framework for analyzing and summarizing the data from strategic theoretical vantage points. The framework, in brief form, included a discussion of the concepts concerning the following: (1) Empathy; (2) Acceptance; (3) Adequacy; (4) Stress; and (5) Perceptual Framework. The perceptual framework is developed in Chapter 3 and was used to analyze the data in Chapter 5.

### Selection of Probability Level

A probability level of .05 was set as the standard of significance for this study. The .05 level of significance determines whether the difference within groups is significantly greater than a chance difference. This .05 level suggests that a 5 out of 100 probability exists that a reported significance difference among groups occurred as a result of chance and not from the independent variable.

### Summary

This chapter presented the design of the study. The "Teacher Strike Project" questionnaire was developed seeking reactions from teachers of the Tucson Unified School District concerning their attitudes, viewpoints, and behavior regarding a number of personal, social-psychological problems and issues which may have been experienced before, during, and after the strike.

The questionnaire was distributed to all teachers in their schools by faculty representatives of the Tucson Education Association. The data from the questionnaires were analyzed and summarized on the basis of the perceptual framework constructed for this study. Answers to the questions in the statement of the problem (Chapter 1) will be discussed in terms of patterns of perceptions and behaviors developed in Chapter 4. A theoretical consideration of the data will be discussed in Chapter 5.

## CHAPTER 3

### THEORETICAL CONSIDERATIONS

This chapter will present the theoretical framework used to analyze the data of the study. The chapter is divided into two parts. The first part introduces certain elements involved in the process of perception. The second part presents a theoretical framework with which to better understand the perceptions and reported behaviors of participants in the teacher strike under study.

#### Introduction: Background Considerations Regarding Perceptual Psychology

The field of psychology has traditionally been regarded from one of two frames of reference (Combs, Richards, and Richards 1976; Child 1973; Postman and Weingartner 1973; Avila, Combs, and Purkey 1971; Kuenzli 1959; Snygg and Combs 1949). The first is the external frame of reference which permits the observation of people and their behavior from the point of view of an outsider. One of its chief proponents, B. F. Skinner, "was not concerned with what goes on inside the organism, the organism's motivational or emotional state, or even its neurology" (Sprinthall and Sprinthall 1974, p. 208), but rather focuses on behavior from the standpoint of what a person

does. The second is the internal frame of reference which focuses on individual perceptions and meanings of things and events as perceived by the behavior. This frame of reference, often referred to as humanistic psychology, "draws its inspiration from one man—he is the late Abraham Maslow" (Postman and Weingartner 1973, p. 64). It is concerned with the internal experiences of the individual. The humanists believe "that the behavior of man is largely governed by the structure of their beliefs, i. e., their feelings, their purposes, their attitudes, their perceptions, etc." (Postman and Weingartner 1973, p. 65).

Behavior can be studied from either the external or internal frame of reference. Each has been used to examine behavior from a different point of view and both have contributed to an understanding of human behavior. Each point of view is essential to the study of human behavior, but by itself is incomplete (Kuenzli 1959; Child 1973). The external frame of reference tends to overlook the internal feelings of the individual. "The object of study is looked at only as object and is considered not for its own sake, but for the generalization that can be based upon it" (Child 1973, p. v.). The internal frame of reference, on the other hand, is primarily concerned with the internal meanings and the perceptions of the individual and "may forget the person in order to study the process occurring within him" (Child 1973, p. v.).

Because of the seemingly restricted concerns of both the external and internal frames of reference, a third alternate approach to the study of behavior has been advanced. In 1949, Donald Snygg and Arthur Combs, in

their book, Individual Behavior: A New Frame of Reference for Psychology, introduce a conceptual system which they refer to as a "new frame of reference" for studying behavior. In 1959, this "new frame of reference" was changed to what is now commonly known as perceptual psychology. This conceptual system has achieved acceptance by many leading psychologists such as Sidney M. Jourard, Earl C. Kelly, A. H. Maslow, and Carl Rogers (Welch, Tate, and Richards 1978).

In perceptual psychology an attempt has been made to integrate the concepts of both the external and internal frames of references to form a more viable approach to the study of human behavior. The integrated view is employed to understand man by studying the relationships between the external behavior of a person and his internal perceptions or meanings. It is to this extent that the person is being studied more nearly in his entirety (Welch, Tate, and Richards 1978; Combs, Richards, and Richards 1976; Avila, Combs, and Purkey 1971; Combs et al. 1962; Allport 1960; Snygg and Combs 1949).

#### Perceptual Psychology: A Frame of Reference

Combs et al. (1962), in Perceiving, Behaving, Becoming, describe perceptual psychology as a frame of reference which:

. . . seeks to understand man in dynamic terms. It looks at human beings, not only through the eyes of an outsider but also in terms of how things look from the point of view of the behavior himself. It is concerned with more than the forces exerted upon people from the outside. It seeks also to understand the internal life of the individual: his wants, feelings, desires, attitudes, values, and the unique ways of seeing and understanding that cause him to behave as he does (Combs et al. 1962, p. 67).

One of the basic principles underlying the perceptual frame of reference is that all behavior is a product of a person's perceptions. Perception is defined and referred to in this study as the "meaning" or "significance" given an event or object by the behaver at a given moment. As such, "people behave in terms of the personal meanings (perceptions) existing for them at the moment of action" (Combs et al. 1962, p. 68). "We are governed by perceptions in everything we do from the simplest to the most complex of behaviors. We do not step out in the street unless we believe the cars will stop" (Avila, Combs, and Purkey 1971, p. 9).

Each person will develop perceptions and give meanings to objects and events as a consequence of his interaction with the world in which he lives. It should be noted that the event or object itself does not have meaning. The meaning given is a creative act occurring within each person (Avila, Combs, and Purkey 1971, p. 84). "We do not react in the same way to persons and things" (Tagiuri and Petruccio 1958, p. 27). This makes each person's field of meanings unique and highly personal.

Keen (1972, pp. 106-107) supports the notion that people give objects meaning when he states:

Objects also rely for their meaning upon an interpersonal horizon . . . for all meanings ultimately hinge upon it. . . . The meaningfulness of any human experience whatever depends upon a sense of human being as its root, basic, and final significance.

The behavior tends always to act according to the "facts" as he perceives them. A person's unique perceptions, the meanings things have for

him is not what is, but what is comprehended by the behaver. "People do not behave according to the 'facts' as they seem to an outsider. How each of us behaves at any given moment is a result of how things seem to him" (Combs et al. 1962, p. 67).

Avila, Combs, and Purkey (1971, p. 82) support the viewpoint that the behaver tends to act according to the "facts" as he perceives them when they state:

A fact is not what is; a fact for any person is what he believes is so. If Joe Green believes his boss is unfair, he behaves as though he were. Whether Joe's boss is really unfair in the eyes of other people has little or nothing to do with the matter. As Joe thinks, he behaves. He can only behave in terms of what seems to him to be the fact of the matter. So far as Joe's behavior is concerned, the "real" facts as they appear to an outsider are irrelevant and immaterial.

The behavior of each person is invariably purposeful and relevant to him at the moment of action. Such behavior may seem irrelevant to an outsider, but as indicated in the foregoing discussion, the situation as it appears to others is not the cause of one's behavior.

Combs, Richards, and Richards (1976, p. 15) discuss the purposefulness of a behaver's actions when they state:

From each person's point of view his own behavior is caused, purposeful, and always has reason. Sometimes the reasons are vague and confused, in which case the behavior is equally vague and uncertain; sometimes the meanings are extremely clear and definite. But everything we do seems reasonable and necessary at the time we are doing it. Our behavior viewed in retrospect may seem to have been "crazy," silly, or ineffective, but at the instant of behaving, our actions seem to us to be the best and most effective acts we can perform under the circumstances. If, at that instant, we knew how to perform more effectively, we would do so.

Each person behaves with reference to any situation in terms of how he perceives that situation. "People do not react to situations; they react to their perceptions of situations. Therefore, a person's behavior in a situation is not a direct action to the situation, but rather to the person's perception of the situation" (Nevill 1977, p. 52).

#### Affect of Experience on Perceptions

The significant affect of experience on perception has been well-documented in the literature. Sargent and Stafford (1965, p. 125) state, "Our past experience . . . affects perception considerably." Nevill (1977, p. 162) states that "both experience and behavior are always in relation to someone or something." As Laing, Phillipson, and Lee (1966, p. 12) express it, "Behavior is a function of experience." Rogers believes that each person "comes to be—in awareness—what he is—in experience" (Rogers 1961, pp. 104-105).

A person's perceptions depend to a significant degree on the assumptions he brings to any particular event. This implies "that the meanings and significances we assign to things, to symbols, to people, and to events are the meanings and significances we have built up through our past experience, and are not inherent or intrinsic in the 'stimulus' itself" (Kuenzli 1959, p. 184).

Carterette and Friedman (1974, pp. 83-84), in speaking of the affects of experience on perceptions, state:

On the basis of our prior experience, we organize any current sensory input into categories with which we are familiar, and our past experience translates sensory cues into perception of familiar, real objects in particular spatial relation to one another. This view, empirism, is still very widely held; it maintains that everything in our experience is due to past experience. . . . Our perceptions are consistent with our expectations, and our expectations are built up on the basis of . . . transactions with our environment. . . . Our expectations determine our perceptions: . . . Past experience and expectations, therefore, are the prime determinants of the nature of perceptual structure.

It seems that what is perceived is learned from past experiences.

An individual's experiences will either limit his ability to perceive new events or it will open new panoramas for further perceiving.

The impact of past, present, and future experiences on a person's perceptual process is discussed by Combs, Richards, and Richards (1976, p. 167). They state:

The phenomenal self is essentially a social product arising out of experience with people. Human personality is primarily a product of social interaction; most significant and fundamental facts about ourselves are learned from what Sullivan (1947) called reflected appraisals, inferences about ourselves made as a consequence of the feedback we get from others. We learn who we are and what we are from the way we are treated by those who surround us, in our earliest years by our families and in later years by all those people with whom we come in contact.

Rogers (Combs et al. 1962, p. 234) reinforces the central position of experience in a person's life when he states:

The self and personality emerge from experience . . . sensitivity open to all of his experience—sensitive to what is going on in his environment, sensitive to other individuals with whom he is in relationship, and sensitive perhaps most of all to the feelings, reactions and emergent meanings which he discovers in himself.

### Personal Adequacy and Perception

A person's perceptions are significantly influenced by his constant quest for personal adequacy.<sup>1</sup> This need for adequacy provides the direction and drive for the person's actions. "Every human being, and certainly in almost every new born baby, there is an active will toward health, an impulse toward growth, or toward the actualization of human potentialities" (Maslow 1971, p. 25). Each person tends to perceive in ways which might move him toward the greatest possible degree of adequacy. This makes the perceptual process selective (Collings and McBurney 1977; Nevill 1977; Child 1973; Keen 1970; Klein 1970; Smith 1969). Each person cannot perceive everything in his surroundings as "what might be perceived in any given experience are practically limitless" (Avila, Combs, and Purkey 1971, p. 92), so he will therefore choose to perceive only that which has personal meaning and will enhance the self (Combs et al. 1962, p. 118).

The selective nature of perception is supported by the following statement by Allport (1960, p. 297):

We have first to select what we shall see. . . . We perceive in order to cope, but coping means more than passive mirroring. It means fulfilling our needs; it means finding safety and reassurance, love and self-respect, freedom from worry, opportunities for growth, and ultimately, a satisfying meaning for our existence. Our coping may thus be best served by disregarding

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<sup>1</sup>Defined as the process by which each person "chooses the goals toward which he wants to move. He becomes responsible for himself. He decides what activities and ways of behaving have meaning for him and what do not" (Rogers 1961, pp. 171-172).

some stimuli entirely, by modifying our interpretation of others and by blending incoming meanings with our past habits, our present needs and our future directions.

Tagiuri and Petrullo (1958, p. 153) comment on the selectivity of perceptions, as follows:

The perceiver does not passively assign equal priority to incoming cues, but actively seeks out information which is relevant to his purposes in the situation of interaction. The perceiver is tuned or set to process certain kinds of information but not others.

Barnes (1977, p. 281) summarizes the relationship between personal adequacy and perceptions when he states:

The remarkable thing about us humans is that we are free to imagine the kinds of people . . . we wish to be, and we are equally free to work toward becoming thus. I believe that every man chooses how he will look at himself, how he will see his fellowmen, and how he will regard the rest of the world about. He may not always be able to pick the situations in which he finds himself, but he can choose how he will view them and what he will do in responding to them.

### Self-Concept and Perceptions

The self-concept is one of the most significant factors affecting perceptions. Each person tends to perceive that which is congruent with his concept of self. Studies have shown that persons with positive self-concepts are likely to behave in ways that cause others to perceive them in a more positive manner than persons having a negative self-concept. The existence of a positive self-concept often contributes in creating behavior of a more mature fashion. This viewpoint is reflected in the writings of many psychologists, including Allport, Avila, Combs, Child, Kelly, Maslow, Nevill,

Purkey, Jourard, and Rogers. The literature suggests that persons who have a positive self-concept tend overall to be more adequate than those who do not.

### The Perceptual Field

As previously mentioned, all behavior is a function of a person's perceptions. The "(act or state of) perception is seldom, if ever, the acquiring of just a single perceptual belief; it is rather the acquiring of a more or less large set of such beliefs" (Pitcher 1971, p. 72). Each perceptual belief is amassed together with all other perceptions to form each person's personal field of meanings. This field is called the perceptual field. It "is simply the world of naive, immediate experience in which each individual lives, the everyday situation of self and surroundings which the unsophisticated person takes to be real" (Kuenzli 1959, p. 14). The perceptual field is responsible for the behavior of each person.

The perceptual field consists of its ground and figure. The ground is the total perceptual field observed by the behaver. The figure is something within the ground that is meaningful. Anything in the perceptual field and ground can become a figure, for example, objects, events, feelings, and ideas, etc. The meaning of any event is a result of the relationship of any meaningful item (figure) to the totality observed (ground). This relationship is called the figure-ground relationship by Gestalt psychologists (Collings and McBurney 1977; Combs, Richards, and Richards 1976; Sargent and Stafford 1965).

The figure-ground relationship and its effect upon behavior is illustrated below in an experience at a movie theater:

Entering the theater, we perceive the screen and its contents as ground, the aisle and seats as figures. Having found a seat, we perceive the screen somewhat more precisely as we make ourselves comfortable. At this stage we are still aware of our surroundings, of the edge of the screen, even of the screen as a screen. Shortly, however (if the picture is a good one), the images on the screen move into exclusive figure so that we lose practically all awareness of the ground surrounding us. We may even feel so "alone" with the images on the screen that we cry unabashedly—something we might not do if all strangers around us were clearly in figure (Combs, Richards, and Richards 1976, p. 30).

Within the perceptual field, figures emerge and recede from the ground as the attention of the perceiver shifts. The perceiver constantly searches his perceptual field for meaningful items in conformity to his needs and the activity he is pursuing. This search tends to cause a change in his perceptual field by the rise of characters into "figure" and the consequent lapse of others into the "ground." This process is described by Combs, Richards, and Richards (1976, p. 28) as "the emergence of figure from ground . . . of increased awareness of details . . . called differentiation." It is through differentiation that perceptual change can affect behavior. Sometimes the differentiations become so significant in affecting behavior that they can serve as tentative guidelines in predicting what a person will or will not do in a given circumstance (Combs, Richards, and Richards 1976; Kuenzli 1959).

Differentiation and its effect upon behavior is illustrated in the following, where the field and behavior of a motorist who is testing his brakes is compared with that of a motorist who is stopping to avoid an imminent accident.

In the first case the figure is rather diffuse and includes some awareness of his tires; consequently, the driver brings the car to a stop in a way that will not damage the tires. . . . In a real emergency, however, the object to be avoided and the need for stopping stand out so sharply that his concern for tires drops into the ground, and the brakes are applied with violence and decision (Combs, Richards, and Richards 1976, p. 29).

The perceptual field widens (opens) and narrows (closes) depending on the immediate concerns of the person. The perceptual field tends to widen when the person is relaxed and unrestricted. The field tends to narrow when the person's concerns are intense and it seems necessary to concentrate upon a particular perception (Nevill 1977; Combs, Richards, and Richards 1976; Rokeach 1960). The narrowing and broadening of the perceptual field will "influence the perceptions possible and control the likelihood of change in ways of perceiving and behaving" (Avila, Combs, and Purkey 1971, p. 106).

Rokeach (1960) describes the perceptual field of each person as a belief-disbelief system which is either open (broad) or closed (narrow) to some degree at different times. This system "has the property of expanding and contracting, of becoming more open, or more closed, in response to a specific situation in which the person finds himself" (Rokeach 1960, pp. 376-377).

The extent to which information is perceived tends to depend upon the degree to which the perceptual field is open or closed. Rokeach (1960, p. 50) discusses how information is affected when a person's perceptual field is extremely open or closed. He states:

At the closed extreme, it is the new information that must be tampered with by narrowing it out, altering it, or containing it within isolated bounds. In this way, the belief-disbelief system is left intact. At the open extreme, it is the other way around: new information is assimilated as is and, in the hard process of reconciling it with other beliefs, communicates with other peripheral, as well as intermediate beliefs, thereby producing "genuine" changes in the whole belief-disbelief system. Regardless of whether a belief-disbelief system is open or closed, it forms a psychological system. . . . It may or may not be a logical system.

Each person receives information from every situation he encounters. The extent to which he can adequately receive, evaluate, and act on such will depend upon the degree that his perceptual field is open or closed.

The more open one's belief system, the more should evaluating and acting on information proceed independently on its own merits . . . the more open the belief system, the more the person be governed in his actions by internal self-actualizing forces. . . . Consequently, the more should he be able to resist pressures exerted by external sources to evaluate and to act in accord with their wishes (Rokeach 1960, p. 58).

Conversely, the more closed the belief system, the greater will be the influence of outside authority, rather than intrinsic desire on behavior (Rokeach 1960, p. 58). An open perceptual system assists the behavior to perceive events from a much broader perspective, thus tending to permit more options from which to choose.

It should be noted that the narrowing (closing) of the perceptual field is not necessarily undesirable. On the contrary, concentration on a particular perception is often desirable and necessary for it frequently facilitates the completion of tasks and the achieving of personal goals. The narrowing of the perceptual field is in some instances an absolute necessity. An instance of this occurs when a driver notes a pedestrian about to step into the path of his moving vehicle. There is no time to think of the surrounding world. There must be an instantaneous and exclusive awareness of the pedestrian, and the driver needs to react at once.

Some people tend to carry the concentration of perceptions to extremes. They seek so actively for money, admiration, and personal feelings of power over people and events that they tend to overlook important values and principles of effective social interrelationships (Nevill 1977).

In the same light, some people are so anxious to achieve a personal goal that they rush straight for it in a most inefficient manner. If they had a more open perceptual field, they might be able to perceive a more adequate and efficient manner of approach.

#### The Affect of Stress and Threat Upon Perceptions

Psychologists have noted that when persons are under stress or threat, two negative effects upon perception occur. The first is the narrowing of the perceptual field to the extent that needs are strongly affected. The second is the tendency for the individual to more vigorously defend existing perceptions.

The first instance, where needs are affected by a narrowing of the perceptual field, is like looking through a tunnel. The object of threat or stress is an exclusive figure which is clearly seen at the end of the tunnel, while surrounding events or objects are blocked out. This type of perception is called "tunnel vision."

The degree of tunnel vision will depend upon the significance of the threatening event. "The more threatening a situation is to a person, the more closed his belief system will become" (Rokeach 1960, p. 377). Avila, Combs, and Purkey (1971, p. 106) observe that "if threat is very great, attention becomes sharply focused on the threatening event, to the exclusion of all else. . . . Sometimes the narrowing effect of threat may even result in doing stupid things in an emergency."

The behavior of persons under stress and threat tends to be rigid and inflexible as the individual experiences an inability to perceive from a broad perspective. The conditions leading to such a narrowing of perception, with its attendant exclusive figure, results in a loss of all awareness of the surrounding ground. This, then, tends to produce nonadaptive behavior as well as a decrease in personal efficiency and problem-solving ability (Walsh 1979; Combs, Richards, and Richards 1976; Combs et al. 1962; McNerney 1974; Gray 1974; Glass and Singer 1972; Avila, Combs, and Purkey 1971; Keen 1970; Toffler 1970; Schultz 1964; Allport 1960; Kuenzli 1959; Carnegie 1948).

McNerney (1974, p. 78) states that "persons under stress tend to lose perspective, especially about their own capacity . . . the person is

struggling actively with a situation that temporarily is beyond his capacity to master." Carnegie (1948, p. 24) comments that "the anxious and harrassed individual who is unable to cope with the harsh world of reality breaks off all contact with his environment and retreats into a private world of his own making."

Schultz (1964, p. 81) summarizes several studies related to the behavior of persons under threat. He characterizes their behavior as "nonadaptive . . . an attempt to adjust to an unexpected and action-demanding circumstance by nonrational and nonsocial individualistic flight." He suggests that such behavior, instead of relieving the problem, tends to make it much worse. Combs, Richards, and Richards (1976, p. 244) comment on this, stating that the "experience of threat seems also to be accompanied by rigidity in the sense of intolerance of ambiguity; that is, people under stress seem less able to cope with ambiguous or unsolved problems."

Allport (1960, p. 303) notes that persons under stress tend to be people who are "distrustful, apprehensive, and insecure in handling even simple percepts." He cites Postman and Bruner (1948), observing that there is a "kind of 'perceptual recklessness' among persons under stress: such persons seem to jump at premature hypotheses and demand a definiteness in the outer world that it may not in fact possess."

The second effect of stress and threat upon perceptions is that "persons are forced into more rigid defenses of their existing perceptions"

(Combs, Richards, and Richards 1976, p. 358). Avila, Combs, and Purkey (1971, p. 107) comment on this latter effect of stress, as follows:

People in the midst of argument do not hear what others are saying. Children dig in their heels and refuse to cooperate. Grown men become stubborn. . . . Almost everyone is aware that when he feels threatened, his first reaction is to defend himself in every way he can. What is more, the greater the degree of threat to which he is exposed the more tenaciously he holds to the perceptions, ideas, or practices he already has. Under the experiences of threat, people find it almost impossible to change. Thus, communication breaks down.

Kuenzli (1959, p. 44) states that "threat produces defense. The self-concept, as it exists at the time, is defended more vigorously and is less capable of change and growth."

#### Challenge or Threat?

All persons do not react in the same manner when subjected to what seems to be a threatening situation. Some people will feel threatened and behave as suggested in the foregoing, while others may feel no threat. They may perceive the situation as a challenge and opportunity for self-enhancement.

The difference between a threatening situation and a challenging situation appears to be the degree to which each person sees himself able to cope with the situation. Threat thus tends to be the product of an inadequate perception of self in a given situation. "Whether people feel challenged or threatened by a particular situation or event is a personal matter . . . of the behavior's own perceptions of adequacy or inadequacy" (Combs, Richards, and Richards 1976, p. 247). As Kuenzli (1959, p. 44) expresses it, "To speak of

a non-threatened person, then, is another way of referring to one who is self-acceptant and who perceives himself as a basically adequate person."

Glass and Singer (1972, p. 88) reinforce the central position that threat tends to be a product of an inadequate perception in a given situation when they state:

A sense of competence is presumably aroused by the individual's perception that he has control over his environment. Feelings of incompetence may be described as the helplessness that develops when an individual is unable to cope with stressful events confronting him.

### Changing Behavior

Writers in perceptual psychology have suggested that behavior is determined by the perceptual field of the behavior. For the behavior to consciously change his behavioral patterns, some change in his perception is needed. "When people can be helped to see differently, they will behave differently. If people can be helped to perceive themselves differently and their world more adequately, they will behave more adequately as well" (Combs, Richards, and Richards 1976, p. 270).

Jourard (1972, p. 154) comments on changing behavior when he states "that your experience is a determiner of your action." He uses the term "experience" to include "perception, remembering, thinking, imagining, fantasy, and dreaming." He suggests a link between behavior and perceptions "as you change your ways of experiencing the world you'll also be changing, to some extent, your ways of acting in the world" (Jourard 1972, p. 156).

### Inferences from Information Obtained from the Behaver

The observation of a person concerning his behavior are useful.

"What a person has to say about himself is valuable data" (Avila, Combs, and Purkey 1971, p. 54). His feelings, attitudes, concerns, or description of events about him will give insights into the nature of his perceptual field. With this information, it is possible to infer into the factors which may have produced them. This information could be useful in helping to find adequate solutions to events and problems (Combs, Richards, and Richards 1976; Keen 1970; Avila, Combs, and Purkey 1971; Laing, Phillipson, and Lee 1966).

### Theoretical Framework

In that which follows, a set of concepts drawn from the literature are presented which appears to be significant in analyzing the perceptions and reported behavior of the participants under study in a teacher strike.

#### Empathy

1. Effective social relationships require sensitivity and an understanding of how things seem to the other person.

Our society is the product of our social relationships and perhaps the most important ingredient in the development of effective social relationships is empathy. Empathy is "the ability to identify with other people" (Dale 1974, p. 21). Avila, Combs, and Purkey (1971, p. 85) comment on empathy as "the capacity to place one's self in another's shoes, to perceive as he does."

Much of the misunderstanding among people and most of the breakdowns in human interaction seem due to a failure to properly understand how things appear to the other person. "To deal effectively with other people, whether across the lunch table or across the diplomatic conference table, requires a sensitivity and understanding of how things seem to the other fellow" (Combs et al. 1962, p. 72).

As discussed earlier in this chapter, behavior is a product of personal meaning and is a selective process. As such, each person tends to be preoccupied with that which seems important to him. He often fails, therefore, to perceive what is important to the other person. The point to be made is that what people see, think, hear, and listen to is determined by what they think is important. Unless empathy is valued in our social relationships, it is not likely to occur (Avila, Combs, and Purkey 1971, p. 189).

Rogers (1961, p. 18) expresses the value he places on empathy when he states:

I have found it of enormous value when I can permit myself to understand another person. . . . If I let myself really understand another person, I might be changed by that understanding. And we all fear change. . . . It is not an easy thing to permit oneself to understand an individual, to enter thoroughly and completely and empathetically into his frame of reference.

Studies show that persons who are empathetic in their relationships are more effective in their dealings with others (Dale 1974; Anderson and VanDyke 1972; Stahl 1962; Sartain and Baker 1972; Carnegie 1964).

Sartain and Baker (1972, p. 214) comment on the significance of empathy in effective social relationships when they state:

Supervisors should empathize . . . as much as possible about the facts of the situation (and feelings are facts, too) and handle them in the wisest, most efficient, and most ethical manner. Empathy, then, is a means to the end of effective motivation toward worthwhile goals and effective cooperation with others in the attainment of these goals.

Dean Donham of the Harvard Business School refers to the importance of empathy in social relationships when he states:

I should rather walk the sidewalk in front of a man's office for two hours before an interview, than step into his office without a perfectly clear idea of what I am going to say and what—from my knowledge of his interest and motives—is likely to get an answer (Carnegie 1964, p. 165).

Dale Carnegie (1964, p. 165), in discussing empathy and change, observes, "If you want to change people without giving offense or arousing resentment, try honestly to see things from the other person's point of view."

#### Acceptance

2. Persons who are accepted by others as people of dignity and worth tend to become more adequate in their social relationships.

When persons are accepted as people of dignity and worth, they tend to see themselves in more positive ways. They are able to accept themselves and also able to accept others (Avila, Combs, and Purkey 1971; Inlow 1970; Rogers 1961). "With a greater openness to and acceptance of other people,

human relationships are likely to be more successful, since they derive from broader, more accurate perceptions of what other people are like" (Combs et al. 1962, p. 58).

Every person has a need for support and acceptance. He has a need to be needed, a need to feel that he makes a difference to at least one other person. Sartain and Baker (1972, p. 201), in discussing acceptance, state:

What every person wants, of course, is to feel that he is held in esteem by his boss and his other associates not only for what he can do and does, but also for what he is. He is quite willing to be a means to an end for a fine, respectable management; what he resents is being nothing more than a means to an end. American workers never like this nor are they inspired by it, no matter how it is sugarcoated.

Kuenzli (1959, pp. 167-168) discusses the dynamics of acceptance and social relationships when he states:

The way in which we apprehend the other person is basic to the dynamics of interpersonal relations, to the group structure of the world of people as we see it, and very practically, to the way in which social tensions develop and are resolved.

A number of studies have been conducted attempting to analyze effective leadership behavior. An important finding of these studies is reported by Halpin and Winer (1972, p. 33). They determined that two factors were significant in the behavior of effective leaders. These were initiating structure and consideration.

Initiating structure refers to the leader's defining the relationship between himself and the members of his organization. This includes patterns of organization, channels of communication, and methods of procedures.

Consideration refers to friendship, mutual trust, respect, and warmth in the relationship between the leader and staff. It was indicated that although a staff appreciates a leader who takes the initiative within the organization, the members still wish him to carry out his actions in a friendly and supportive manner. Halpin and Winer note that some of the writers suggest that administrators would have difficulty scoring well on both initiating structure and consideration. They conclude that "the correlation between the two dimensions, consideration and initiating structure, shows that an effective leader can initiate structure without sacrificing consideration" (Halpin and Winer 1972, p. 57).

Allport (1960, pp. 224-225), in speaking of the human relations aspect of leadership, states:

When it is realized that the whole man goes to work, carrying with him his deep need for affection, his hopes, fears and troubles; when industry meshes into his life so that he feels participant in his own destiny; when his purposes are making use of his abilities; when his aspirations are socially understood and approved—then the whole productive process improves.

Tagiuri and Petrullo (1958, p. 162) observe that "whatever the source or motive for securing positive effects from others, however, the perceiver will be most sensitive to such traits as friendliness, acceptance, tolerance, and supportiveness."

Krebs (1977), in More Gleanings—From Hither and Yon, summarizes the significance of acceptance in social relationships when he states:

Goal seeking by ways that do not take the rights and feelings of others into account is not legitimate no matter how effective the means may be.

### Stress

3. Persons under stress tend to undergo a narrowing of perceptions, behaving in less flexible, and less adaptive ways.

In an earlier section of this chapter, it was indicated that a person who is under stress or threat has at least two negative effects with which to contend. The first of these effects is a narrowing of the perceptual field to the extent that needs are strongly affected. The second effect is a tendency for the individual to more vigorously defend his perceptions.

Regarding the narrowing of the perceptual field, whatever seems stressful or threatening seems to demand increasing attention from the behavior. This tends to produce a certain degree of tunnel vision suggesting that the object of stress or threat is becoming an exclusive figure in the behavior's perceptual field. As this process continues, surrounding events or objects seem to fade into the background.

The more stressful or threatening a situation becomes, the more the person's attention becomes focused on the situation, often to the exclusion of all else. This narrowing of the perceptual field seems to make it more difficult for the behavior to perceive events from a broader perspective, thus his behavior tends to become less flexible and less adaptive. This has a

tendency to diminish the person's sense of adequacy, affecting his ability to solve problems and function in an efficient manner.

The second effect of stress and threat is that a person is forced into more rigid defenses of already existing perceptions and thus become less capable of change and growth. A frequent result is communication breakdown and a diminution of effective social relationships.

#### Adequacy

4. Persons whose sense of adequacy is challenged or threatened by attempts at manipulation and control tend to retaliate.

As mentioned in a previous section of this chapter, the behavior of each person is a result of his constant quest for personal adequacy. Personal adequacy is "the urge to expand, extend, develop mature—the tendency to express and activate all the capacities of the organism, or self" (Rogers 1961, p. 351). Maslow (1971) describes the growth principle as "self actualization." He observes that each person appears to be in the process of actualizing his potentialities, which suggests "working to do well the thing one wants to do. To become a second-rate physician is not a good path to self-actualization. One wants to be first-rate or as good as he can be" (Maslow 1971, p. 48).

A person's need for adequacy tends to provide the direction and drive for his actions. If this drive is challenged or threatened by attempts at manipulation and control, he might experience stress. As previously mentioned, a person under stress tends to experience a narrowing of his

perceptual fields, often thus disposing him to behave in less flexible and less adaptive ways. If this situation persists, the behavior tends to retaliate in defense of self and in defense of existing perceptions.

Powers (1973, p. 65) considers the possible consequences of stress-producing social conditions when he observes:

Attempts to manipulate and control behavior without regard for the internal determinants of that behavior will inevitably lead to conflict. If a person's sense of adequacy is challenged or threatened by attempts at manipulation and control, he may retaliate in similar fashion.

Shields (1973, p. 46) considers the consequences of unsatisfied needs in the social life of a person, as follows:

The need that is most important to any individual is the need that makes itself felt most strongly. Some individuals are on the psychological need level. Others have needs for physical and social safety and security, others for social interaction, and others for self-fulfillment and creativity. . . . When a need is not satisfied, individuals feel deprived and act with indolence, passivity, and irresponsibility, and they are much resistant to change. A good deal of our behavior is not so much a consequence of our inherent nature as it is of the circumstance under which we live.

#### Perceptual Framework

5. Persons in both management and labor positions need to work toward adequate social relationships through the development of positive and productive perceptual and behavioral frameworks.

Effective social relationships have a greater chance to develop when there is an overlapping of the perceptual fields of all persons in interaction

with each other. Such an overlap increases the likelihood that the participants will understand each other. This, in turn, could lead to more adequate social relationships among the persons.

Likert (1951, p. 171) summarizes a number of studies of motivation and morale in industry. He concludes that workers have two primary sets of interest. In the first place, they want ego recognition which includes credit for work done, economic security, praise, and many other means of building self-esteem. Second, the workers want affiliation with the group, which includes pleasant relations with the foreman, a sense of participation in teamwork, and, above all, the satisfaction of conducting themselves in terms of the values and normative expectations prevailing within the group of co-workers.

The point regarding one's need for recognition and pleasant working relationships is significant. "In industry, and probably in any other form of human association, men wish to preserve their self-esteem, their self-love, and simultaneously wish to have warm affiliation relations with their fellows" (Allport 1960, p. 171).

#### Summary: Theoretical Considerations

In the following, the concepts developed in this chapter are summarized. Following this, the theoretical framework used to organize, analyze, and report the data is outlined.

### Perceptual Frame of Reference

The perceptual frame of reference suggests that behavior is a product of perceptions and that people tend to behave in terms of the personal meanings existing for them at the moment of action. People do not behave according to the "facts" as they seem to others, but behave according to the "facts" as they perceive them to be. Perceptions are significantly affected by the experiences and self-concept of the behavior.

Each person's need for adequacy provides the direction and drive for his actions. His actions, as he sees them, are always purposeful, relevant, and pertinent.

The perceptual field of each person will determine his behavior. The perceptual field consists of its "ground" and "figure." The ground is the total perceptual field observed by the behavior. The figure is something within the ground that is meaningful. The figure emerges and recedes from the ground as the attention of the perceiver shifts. The perceptual field broadens and narrows, depending on the immediate concerns of the person. For the behavior to consciously change his behavioral patterns, some change in his perceptions is needed.

### Theoretical Framework

The following is a condensed outline of the theoretical framework employed in this study:

Empathy. Effective social relationships require sensitivity and understanding of how things seem to the other person.

Acceptance. Persons who are accepted as people of dignity and worth tend to become more adequate in their social relationships.

Stress. Persons under stress tend to undergo a narrowing of perceptions and behave in less flexible and less adaptive ways.

Adequacy. Persons whose sense of adequacy is challenged or threatened by attempts at manipulation and control tend to retaliate.

Perceptual Framework. Persons in both management and labor positions need to work toward adequate social relationships through the development of positive and productive perceptual and behavioral frameworks.

## CHAPTER 4

### PRESENTATION OF DATA

The purpose of this chapter is to present the data obtained from the "Teacher Strike Questionnaire" given to teachers of the Tucson Unified School District in May 1979. The data is presented in the following order: (1) Participation Data; (2) Demographic Data; (3) Strike Behavior Data; (4) Striker Characteristics Data; (5) Strike Perceptual Data; and (6) Summary of Findings.

#### Participation Data

##### Responses by School Level

Questionnaires were sent to the faculties of 97 schools. Of this number, 91 schools (93.8 percent) participated in the study by returning completed questionnaires to the Tucson Education Association office (hereafter referred to as TEA). A summary of the school responses by school level is shown in Table 1.

##### Responses of Teachers and Support Service Personnel by Teaching Level

A total of 1,728 teachers of the 2,751 teachers in the school district participated in the study. This represents approximately 62.8 percent of the

Table 1. School Responses by School Level.

School Level	Number of Schools	Number of Responses	Percentage
Elementary	68	62	91.2
Junior High	15	15	100.0
Senior High	9	9	100.0
Adaptive Education	4	4	100.0
Alternative Education	1	1	100.0
Total	97	91	93.8 <sup>a</sup>

<sup>a</sup>Weighted mean

district. The responses by teaching level were as follows: 758 elementary teachers (43.9 percent); 299 junior high teachers (17.3 percent); 569 senior high teachers (32.9 percent); and 101 support service personnel (5.8 percent). A summary of the responses of teachers and support service personnel by teaching level is shown in Table 2.

The responses of teachers by teaching level were compared with the total number of elementary, junior high, and senior high teachers in the district. This was done in order to see how accurately the responses represented the total population of the district. Population statistics were obtained from the Tucson Unified School District Personnel office. The distribution of the responses by teaching level as shown in Table 3 had little variance from the actual population statistics. The response statistics for both the junior and senior high teachers were slightly over 1 percent more than the population statistics, whereas the elementary teacher response statistics were 2.6 percent less than the population statistics.

#### Summary of Participation Data

The list below summarizes some of the more significant information concerning the participation data.

1. 91 percent of the 97 schools in the district participated in the study.
2. 1,728 (62.8 percent) of the teachers in the district participated in the study by completing and returning the questionnaire.

Table 2. Responses of Teachers and Support Service Personnel by Teaching Level.

Teaching Level	Number of Responses	Percentage
Elementary	758	43.9
Junior High	299	17.3
Senior High	569	32.9
Support Services	101	5.8
Missing Data	1	.1
Total	1,728	100.0

Table 3. Comparison of Teacher Responses by Number of Teachers in the District.

Teaching Level	District Population	Percentage	Number of Responses	Percentage
Elementary	1,355	49.2	758	46.6
Junior High	467	17.0	299	18.4
Senior High	929	33.8	569	35.0
Total	2,751	100.0	1,626	100.0

3. The distribution of responses by teaching levels was as follows: 758 elementary teachers (43.9 percent); 299 junior high teachers (17.3 percent); 569 senior high teachers (32.9 percent); and 101 support service personnel (5.8 percent). The distribution of responses by teaching level varied little from the actual district statistics.

#### Demographic Data

The following summarizes the demographic data of respondents in the study:

**Age:** The range of respondents' ages was from 20 to 60 years of age and over. The mean, arithmetic average age for all respondents was 41.

**Sex:** The female respondents outnumbered the male respondents almost two to one. There were 1,100 female respondents (66.5 percent), as compared to 554 male respondents (33.5 percent).

**Marital Status:** There were 1,212 married respondents (70.9 percent), as compared to 498 single respondents (29.1 percent).

**Number of Years Teaching Experience:** The range of years teaching experience was from one to 41 years. The mean for all the respondents was 13 years teaching experience.

**Number of Years Teaching Experience in the District:** The range for the number of years teaching in the district was from one to 35. For all respondents, the mean number of years teaching experience in the district was 11 years.

**Professional Organization Membership:** There were 1,556 respondents (90.6 percent) who were members of a professional organization, as compared to 162 respondents (9.4 percent) who were not members of a professional organization. The TEA accounted for 1,443, or 84 percent of all respondents who were members of a professional organization.

Education Level: The education range of all respondents was the bachelor's degree through the doctorate. The mean educational level was the master's degree; 31.8 percent of all respondents had reached that level.

### Strike Behavior Data

#### Pre-Strike Data

Question I-11: "Did you at anytime walk the informational picket line prior to the strike vote?"

Responses:	Yes	1,075	Percentage:	62.8
	No	<u>638</u>		<u>37.2</u>
	Total	1,713		<u>100.0</u>

Missing/Invalid Responses: 15

Responses indicated that 62.8 percent of all respondents reported walking the informational picket line prior to the strike vote. A crosstabulation of these responses by strike behavior in Table 4 showed that 74.1 percent of striking teachers reported walking the informational picket line prior to the strike vote. It is interesting to note that 31.3 percent of the non-striking teachers reported walking the informational picket line prior to the strike.

Question I-12: "Did you attend the meeting at which the strike vote was taken?"

Responses:	Yes	1,564	Percentage:	91.2
	No	<u>151</u>		<u>8.8</u>
	Total	1,715		<u>100.0</u>

Missing/Invalid Responses: 13

Table 4. Crosstabulation of "Walk Informational Picket Line" (QI-11) by Strike Behavior.

Walk Informational Picket Line	Strike Behavior <sup>a</sup>	
	Strike	Non-Strike
Yes	929 (74.1)	142 (31.3)
No	324 (25.9)	312 (68.7)

(Missing Responses: 21)

<sup>a</sup>Column percent in parentheses.

Responses indicated that 91.2 percent of all respondents reported attending the meeting at which the strike vote was taken. A crosstabulation of these responses by strike behavior in Table 5 showed that 94.5 percent of striking teachers reported attending the meeting at which the strike vote was taken as compared to 82.3 percent of the non-striking teachers.

Question I-13: "Did you vote to strike?"

Responses:	Yes	1,027	Percentage:	61.1
	No	<u>653</u>		<u>38.9</u>
	Total	1,680		100.0

Missing/Invalid Responses: 48

Responses indicated that 61.1 percent of the respondents reported having voted to strike. A crosstabulation of these responses by strike behavior is shown in Table 6. The data showed that 80.9 percent of striking teachers voted to strike, as compared to 93.9 percent of non-striking teachers who voted not to strike. Of the respondents who voted not to strike, 19.1 percent chose to strike once the strike began.

Question I-14: "Strike Behavior"

Responses:	Number:	Percentage:
"I was on strike—I did NOT cross picket line."	1,191	69.4
"I was NOT on strike—I did cross picket line."	455	26.5
"I was NOT on strike, although I did NOT cross picket line."	<u>70</u>	<u>4.1</u>
	1,716	100.0

Missing/Invalid Responses: 12

Table 5. Crosstabulation of "Attend Strike Vote Meeting" (QI-12) by Strike Behavior.

Attend Strike Meeting	Strike Behavior <sup>a</sup>	
	Strike	Non-Strike
Yes	1,187 (94.5)	372 (82.3)
No	69 (5.5)	80 (17.7)

(Missing Responses: 20)

<sup>a</sup>Column percentage in parentheses.

Table 6. Crosstabulation of "Vote to Strike" (QI-13) by Strike Behavior.

Vote to Strike	Strike Behavior <sup>a</sup>	
	Strike	Non-Strike
Yes	998 (80.9)	27 (6.1)
No	236 (19.1)	414 (93.9)

(Missing Responses: 53)

<sup>a</sup>Column percentage in parentheses.

Responses indicated that 73.5 percent of the respondents reported that they did not cross the picket line as compared to 26.5 percent who responded that they did.

It should be noted that the response, "I was NOT on strike, although I did NOT cross the picket line," was treated as an "on strike" response for purposes of reporting the data.

It should also be noted that the percentages of strike and non-strike teachers in this study varied little from the strike and non-strike teacher percentages in the total population. Both district and TEA leaders reported that 70 to 75 percent of teachers in the district did strike. This would indicate that the strike behavior statistics of this study tended to be representative of the district.

Question I-15: "Change in Strike Behavior"

Responses:	Number:	Percentage*:
NOT on strike at beginning, but chose to strike later.	57	3.3
On strike at the beginning, but chose to return to work later.	<u>36</u> 93	<u>2.1</u> 5.4

Invalid Responses: 0

\*Of total n = 1,728.

Responses indicated that 93 respondents (5.4 percent) reported their behavior as having changed during the strike. A greater number of

teachers chose to change from a non-strike to a strike status (3.3 percent) than from a strike to a non-strike status (2.1 percent).

#### Summary of Strike Behavior Data

The list below summarizes some of the more significant information in the data concerning strike behavior:

1. 62.8 percent (1,075) of all respondents reported walking the informational picket line prior to the strike vote.
2. 91.2 percent (1,564) of all respondents reported attending the meeting at which the strike vote was taken.
3. 61.1 percent (1,027) of all respondents who attended the meeting at which the strike vote was taken voted to strike. 19.1 percent (236) of the respondents who voted not to strike, actually struck once the decision to strike was made.
4. 73.5 percent (1,266) of all respondents reported striking, while 26.5 percent (455) reported not striking. The percentages of strike and non-strike responses closely represented the strike and non-strike percentages in the district.
5. 5.4 percent (93) of all respondents reported their behavior as having changed during the strike. 57 (3.3 percent) of the teachers chose to change from a non-strike to a strike status, while 36 teachers (2.1 percent) changed from a strike to a non-strike status.

### Striker Characteristics Data

The demographic variables and strike behavior data were cross-tabulated and their significance reported in terms of chi-square statistics.

#### Teaching Level

The level at which the respondent teaches was found to be significantly ( $p = .0166$ ) related to strike behavior. Table 7 shows the results of a crosstabulation between teaching level and strike behavior. The junior high schools had a higher percentage of striking teachers (78.8 percent), followed by senior high (75.5 percent), elementary (70.4 percent), and support personnel (68.7 percent).

#### Age

The age of the respondents was found to be significantly ( $p < .0001$ ) related to strike behavior. Table 8 shows a curvilinear relationship between age and strike behavior: among teachers 20-24 years of age, 47.6 percent were on strike; among teachers 25-29 years of age, 79.7 percent were on strike; among teachers 30-34 years of age, 77.2 percent were on strike; among teachers 35-39 years of age, 71.3 percent were on strike; among teachers 40-44 years of age, 77.8 percent were on strike; among teachers 45-54 years of age, 73.2 percent were on strike; among teachers 55-59 years of age, 65.4 percent were on strike; and among teachers 60 years of age and over, 60.8 percent were on strike. This data would seem to indicate that the younger and older teachers were less inclined to strike.

Table 7. Crosstabulation of Teaching Level by Strike Behavior.<sup>a</sup>

Teaching Level	Strike Behavior <sup>b</sup>	
	Strike	Non-Strike
Elementary	529 (70.4)	222 (29.6)
Junior High	234 (78.8)	63 (21.2)
Senior High	429 (75.5)	139 (24.5)
Support	68 (68.7)	31 (31.3)
(Missing Responses: 13)		

<sup>a</sup> Chi-square = 10.244, df = 3, p = 0166.

<sup>b</sup> Row percentage in parentheses.

Table 8. Crosstabulation of Age by Strike Behavior.<sup>a</sup>

Age Group	Strike Behavior <sup>b</sup>	
	Strike	Non-Strike
20 - 24	20 (47.6)	22 (52.4)
25 - 29	244 (79.7)	62 (20.3)
30 - 34	254 (77.2)	75 (22.8)
35 - 39	127 (71.3)	51 (28.7)
40 - 44	154 (77.8)	44 (22.2)
45 - 49	153 (73.2)	56 (26.8)
50 - 54	152 (73.1)	56 (26.9)
55 - 59	100 (65.4)	53 (34.6)
60 and over	48 (60.8)	31 (39.2)

(Missing Responses: 26)

<sup>a</sup>Chi-square = 37.027, df = 8, p < .0001.

<sup>b</sup>Row percentage in parentheses.

A possible explanation for this finding was that younger teachers may not have had tenure, thus having less job security than older, tenured teachers. The older teachers may have been less inclined to strike, as they had the least to gain from doing so.

### Sex

Table 9 reveals that sex was significantly ( $p = .004$ ) related to strike behavior. The data showed a higher percentage of male teachers on strike (79.2 percent), as compared to 70.9 percent for female teachers. This would seem to indicate that male teachers are more inclined to strike than female teachers.

### Marital Status

Marital status appeared not to be significantly related to teacher strike behavior. The 3.7 percentage points between married (74.8 percent) and single (71.1 percent) strike respondents was too small to produce a significant difference. The corrected chi-square was 2.21284 with 1 degree of freedom. The significance level was  $p = .1369$ .

### Number of Dependents

The number of dependents supported by teachers seemed not to be a significant influence on strike behavior. The chi-square was 14.03978 with 8 degrees of freedom. The level of significance was  $p = .0807$ .

Table 9. Crosstabulation of Sex by Strike Behavior.<sup>a</sup>

Sex	Strike Behavior <sup>b</sup>	
	Strike	Non-Strike
Male	438 (79.2)	115 (20.8)
Female	772 (70.9)	317 (29.1)

(Missing Responses = 86)

<sup>a</sup>Corrected chi-square = 12.650, df = 1, p = .0004.

<sup>b</sup>Row percentage in parentheses.

### Teacher Tenure

Table 10 indicates that tenure was significantly ( $p = .0234$ ) related to teacher strike behavior. The crosstabulation of tenure by strike behavior showed that 74.7 percent of striking teachers were tenured, as compared to 68.6 percent for non-tenured striking teachers. The 6.1 percent difference was significant at the  $p = .0234$  level, which is within the .05 significance level chosen by the investigator as the criterion. This finding would indicate that non-tenured teachers appeared to be more hesitant to strike than tenured teachers.

### Years Teaching

The chi-square of the total number of years teaching experience by strike behavior yielded a significant relationship at the  $p = .0207$  level. The chi-square was 18.07255 with 8 degrees of freedom. The chi-square of the number of years teaching in the district by strike behavior did not yield a significant relationship. The level of significance was  $p = .0942$ . The chi-square was 10.81737 with 6 degrees of freedom.

Table 11 shows a comparison of the percent of striking teachers by both total years teaching experience and number of years teaching in the district. A review of this data showed little variances in strike percentages between total years teaching experience and years teaching in the district during the first 25 years of teaching. The striking percentages did vary considerably after the twenty-fifth teaching year. This would seem to

Table 10. Crosstabulation of Tenure by Strike Behavior.<sup>a</sup>

Tenure	Strike Behavior <sup>b</sup>	
	Strike	Non-Strike
Yes	1,005 (74.7)	340 (25.3)
No	242 (68.6)	111 (31.4)

(Missing Responses: 30)

<sup>a</sup> Corrected chi-square = 5.138, df = 1, p = .0234.

<sup>b</sup> Row percentage in parentheses.

Table 11. Percentage Striking Teachers by Total Years Teaching Experience and Years Teaching in District.

Total Years Teaching Experience	Percent of Respondents Who Struck	Total Years Teaching in District	Percent of Respondents Who Struck
1 - 5	71.3	1 - 5	72.4
6 - 10	78.9	6 - 10	78.5
11 - 15	73.9	11 - 15	72.1
16 - 20	71.3	16 - 20	71.7
21 - 25	72.3	21 - 25	72.2
26 - 30	69.8	26 - 30	62.5
31 - 35	77.8	31 - 35	58.3
36 - 40	36.4	36 - 40	--
41 - 45	50.0	41 - 45	--

indicate that while there was a significant relationship between the total number of years teaching and strike behavior, that this relationship seemed to show that the age variable was a more important factor of strike behavior than total years teaching experience.

#### Membership in a Professional Organization

Table 12 shows a significant ( $p < .0001$ ) relationship between membership in a professional organization and strike behavior. A high percentage (93.0 percent) of striking teachers were members of a professional organization, as compared to 7.0 percent who were not. Membership in the local teacher's association (TEA) appeared to be the most influential professional organization during the strike, as 1,103 of its 1,432 (77 percent) respondent members chose to strike.

#### Additional Teacher Strike Characteristics

In that which follows, additional variables which may have influenced strike behavior are presented.

Question I-16: "Did you have an additional source of income that would have seen you through the strike?"

Responses:	Yes	577	Percentage	34.3
	No	<u>1,107</u>		<u>65.7</u>
	Total	1,684		100.0

Missing/Invalid Responses: 44

Responses indicated that 65.7 percent of all respondents did not have an additional source of income that would have seen them through the

Table 12. Crosstabulation of Membership in a Professional Organization by Strike Behavior.<sup>a</sup>

Membership in a Professional Organization	Strike Behavior <sup>b</sup>	
	Strike	Non-Strike
AFT	26 (86.7)	4 (13.3)
NEA	25 (67.6)	12 (32.4)
TEA	1,103 (77.0)	329 (23.0)
Other	18 (40.0)	27 (60.0)
None	83 (51.2)	79 (48.8)

(Missing Responses: 22)

<sup>a</sup>Chi-square = 79.755, df = 4, p < .0001.

<sup>b</sup>Row percentage in parentheses.

strike. A crosstabulation of responses to question I-16 by strike behavior tended to indicate that an additional source of income was not a significant ( $p = .4314$ ) influence on strike behavior. The comparison showed that 33.7 percent (420) of striking teachers reported additional income, as compared to 35.9 percent (156) for non-striking teachers. It would appear that strike behavior was not related to whether one has an additional source of income. The corrected chi-square was .61898 with 1 degree of freedom. The significance level was  $p = .4314$ .

Question I-17: "If married, does your spouse teach?"

Responses:	Yes	336	Percentage:	26.7
	No	<u>921</u>		<u>73.3</u>
	Total	1,257		100.0

Non-applicable cases: 471

Responses indicated that 73.3 percent of all married respondents reported that their spouse did not teach, while 26.7 percent reported their spouse did. A crosstabulation of responses to question I-17 by strike behavior indicated that having a spouse who teaches seemed to have little influence on strike behavior. The comparison showed that 27.7 percent (258) of the striking teachers reported having a spouse who teaches, as compared to 24.5 percent (78) for non-striking teachers. It would appear that strike behavior was not related to whether one's spouse teaches. The corrected chi-square was 1.04499 with 1 degree of freedom. The significance level was  $p = .3067$ .

Question I-18: "If your spouse teaches in Tucson District One, did spouse strike?"

Responses:	Yes	189	Percentage	55.6
	No	<u>151</u>		<u>44.4</u>
	Total	340		100.0

Non-applicable Cases: 1,385

Invalid Responses: 3

Responses indicated that 55.6 percent of all respondents who have a spouse who teaches, reported that their spouse teaches in Tucson District One. A crosstabulation of responses to question I-18 by strike behavior indicated that a significant relationship ( $p < .0001$ ) exists between teachers with a spouse who teaches in the district and strike behavior, as shown in Table 13. The data showed that of the striking respondents who have a spouse who teaches in Tucson District One, 70 percent of the spouses also were on strike, as compared to non-striking teachers, where 82.4 percent of their spouses were not on strike.

The responses to question I-18 indicated that a husband and wife who both teach in the district will usually make the same decision to either strike or not to strike.

#### Summary of Striker Characteristic Data

Table 14 lists and summarizes the statistical findings of relationship between the demographic variables and teacher strike behavior.

Table 13. Crosstabulation of "Spouse's Strike Behavior if Teaching in District" (QI-18) by Strike Behavior.<sup>a</sup>

Spouse Strike (If Teaching in District)	Strike Behavior <sup>b</sup>	
	Strike	Non-Strike
Yes	173 (70.0)	16 (17.6)
No	74 (30.0)	75 (82.4)

(Non-applicable Responses: 1,390)

<sup>a</sup>Corrected chi-square = 72.126, df = 1, p < .0001.

<sup>b</sup>Column percentage in parentheses.

Table 14. Significance of Relationship Between Demographic Variables and Teacher Strike Behavior.

Demographic Variables	Significance Level <sup>a</sup>
Teaching Level . . . . .	.0166 <sup>b</sup>
Age . . . . .	.0001 <sup>b</sup>
Sex . . . . .	.0004 <sup>b</sup>
Marital Status . . . . .	.1369
Number of Dependents . . . . .	.0807
Teacher Tenure . . . . .	.0234 <sup>b</sup>
Total Years Teaching . . . . .	.0207 <sup>b</sup>
Years Teaching in District . . . . .	.0942
Membership in Professional Organization . . . . .	.0001 <sup>b</sup>
Additional Source of Income . . . . .	.4314
Spouse is a Teacher . . . . .	.3067
Spouse is a Teacher in the District . . . . .	.0001 <sup>b</sup>

<sup>a</sup>Chi-square test statistic used.

<sup>b</sup>Significant value (selected criterion level = .05).

### Additional Strike Information

The following presents the data regarding teacher behavior on the picket line and at the meeting for the termination of the strike.

Question I-19: "Did you at anytime walk the picket line?"

Responses:	Yes	1,156	Percentage	69.1
	No	<u>518</u>		<u>30.9</u>
	Total	1,674		100.0

Missing/Invalid Responses: 54

Responses indicated that 69.1 percent of all respondents reported they walked the picket line, as compared to 30.9 percent who did not. A crosstabulation of responses to question I-19 by strike behavior showed that 89.5 percent (1,113) of the striking teachers reported walking the picket line, while 10.5 percent (131) reported they did not. Ten (9.8) percent (42) of the non-striking teachers reported walking the picket line, while 90.2 percent (386) did not.

Question I-20: "Did you attend the meeting for the termination of the strike?"

Responses:	Yes	1,330	Percentage	78.1
	No	<u>374</u>		<u>21.9</u>
	Total	1,704		100.0

Missing/Invalid Responses: 24

Responses indicated that 78.1 percent of all respondents reported attending the meeting for the termination of the strike. A crosstabulation of these responses by strike behavior in Table 15 showed that 90.2 percent

Table 15. Crosstabulation of "Attend Strike Termination Meeting" (QI-20) by Strike Behavior.

Attend Termination Meeting	Strike Behavior <sup>a</sup>	
	Strike	Non-Strike
Yes	1,129 (90.2)	197 (44.1)
No	122 (9.8)	250 (55.9)

(Missing Responses: 30)

<sup>a</sup>Column percentage in parentheses.

of striking teachers reported attending the meeting for the termination of the strike, as compared to 44.1 percent of the non-striking teachers.

Question I-21: "Did you vote to terminate the strike?"

Responses:	Yes	1,199	Percentage:	77.8
	No	<u>342</u>		<u>22.2</u>
	Total	1,541		100.0

Missing/Invalid Responses: 187

Responses indicated that 77.8 percent of all respondents reported they voted to terminate the strike. A crosstabulation of these responses by strike behavior in Table 16 showed that 82.5 percent of the striking teachers reported they voted to terminate the strike, while 17.5 percent voted not to terminate. Sixty-one (61.3) percent of the non-striking teachers voted to terminate the strike, while 38.7 percent voted no.

#### Strike Perceptual Data

##### Issues and Causes of the Strike

Question II-1: "I perceived the major issue of the strike to be:"

Issue:	Number:	Percentage:
Salary	571	34.9
Fringe benefits	43	2.6
Class size	178	10.9
Discipline	32	2.0
Other*	<u>811</u>	<u>49.6</u>
	1,635	100.0

Missing/Invalid Responses: 93

\*138 respondents (8.4 percent) wrote "teacher professionalism" or "integrity" as their response on this question.

Table 16. Crosstabulation of "Vote to Terminate Strike" (Q1-21) by Strike Behavior.

Vote to Terminate Strike	Strike Behavior <sup>a</sup>	
	Strike	Non-Strike
Yes	984 (82.5)	211 (61.3)
No	209 (17.5)	133 (38.7)

(Missing Responses: 191)

<sup>a</sup>Column percentage in parentheses.

Responses indicated that one-half (49.6 percent) of all teacher respondents chose "other" as the major issue of the strike. Among teachers choosing "other," 8.4 percent wrote "professionalism" or "integrity" as their reason for choosing such. "Salary" (34.9 percent) was the second most frequent response, followed by "class size" (10.9 percent) and "fringe benefits" (2.6 percent).

Table 17 shows a crosstabulation of teacher responses as to the major issue of the strike by strike behavior. The data revealed that striking and non-striking teachers differed in their perception as to the major issue of the strike. Over half (54.9 percent) of the striking teachers chose "other" (includes professionalism and integrity) as the major issue of the strike, while over half (55.2 percent) of the non-striking teachers chose "salary" as the major issue of the strike.

The responses clearly indicated that the issues which generated the strike were not limited to economic issues. This was especially true among teachers who chose to strike.

Question II-2: "I feel the strike was the result of:"

Result of:	Number:	Percentage:
The issues mentioned in question one (II-1)	121	7.1
The way the Board and the District's central administration handled the issues	1,332	78.5
The way the teacher's association handled the issues	78	4.6
Other	54	3.2

Table 17. Crosstabulation of "The Major Issue of the Strike" (QII-1) by Strike Behavior.

Major Issue of the Strike	Strike Behavior <sup>a</sup>	
	Strike	Non-Strike
Salary	328 (27.4)	237 (55.2)
Fringe Benefits	33 (2.8)	10 (2.3)
Class Size	150 (12.5)	28 (6.5)
Discipline	29 (2.4)	3 (.7)
Integrity and Professionalism	131 (10.9)	7 (1.6)
Other	527 (44.0)	144 (33.6)
(Missing Responses: 101)		

<sup>a</sup>Column percentage in parentheses.

Result of:	Number:	Percentage:
Both issues and the way the board and the district's central administration handled the issues	51	3.0
Both the way the board and the district's central administration handled the issues and the way the teacher's association handled the issues	<u>61</u>	<u>3.6</u>
	1,697	100.0

Missing/Invalid Responses: 31

Responses indicated that 78.5 percent of all teacher respondents perceived the strike being the result of the way the board and the school district's central administration handled the issues. Many respondents marked more than one item in response to this. Those who responded by marking more than one item were of sufficient number to warrant inclusion in the above responses.

Table 18 shows a crosstabulation of responses to question II-2 by strike behavior. The data showed that 86.5 percent of striking teachers and 55.8 percent of non-striking teachers reported that they perceived the strike as resulting from the way the board and the district's central administration handled the issues.

The responses clearly indicated that factors which generated the strike were not limited to the issues, but to an important extent, included the way the issues were handled.

Table 18. Crosstabulation of "Strike Was the Result of" (QII-2) by Strike Behavior.

Result of	Strike Behavior <sup>a</sup>	
	Strike	Non-Strike
Issue in question one (II-1)	86 (6.9)	35 (7.8)
Way administration handled issues	1,074 (86.5)	249 (55.8)
Way teacher association handled issues	16 (1.3)	62 (13.9)
Other	16 (1.3)	38 (8.5)
Both the issue in question one (II-1) and the way administration handled issues	36 (2.9)	15 (3.4)
Both the way administration handled issues and the way the teacher association handled issues	14 (1.1)	47 (10.5)
(Missing Responses: 40)		

<sup>a</sup>Column percentage in parentheses.

Question II-3: "Who do you feel was most responsible for causing the strike?"

Most Responsible:	Number:	Percentage:
School board	639	38.4
Superintendent	439	26.4
Teacher association	100	6.0
District's negotiating team	118	7.1
Teacher's negotiating team	21	1.3
Undecided	110	6.6
Both school board and superintendent	197	11.9
Other	38	2.3
	<u>1,662</u>	<u>100.0</u>

Missing/Invalid Responses: 66

Responses indicated that 38.4 percent of all respondents reported perceiving the school board as being most responsible for causing the strike, followed by the superintendent (24.4 percent). Those respondents who responded by marking more than one item were in sufficient number to warrant inclusion in the above responses.

Table 19 shows a crosstabulation of responses to question II-3 by strike behavior. The data showed that 42.9 percent of striking teachers and 25.9 percent non-striking teachers chose the school board as most responsible for causing the strike. The superintendent was second in number of responses by both striking (28.4 percent) and non-striking (20.5 percent) teachers.

A review of the responses to this question showed that both striking and non-striking teachers perceived the school board and superintendent as

Table 19. Crosstabulation of "Most Responsible for Causing Strike" (QII-3) by Strike Behavior.

Most Responsible	Strike Behavior <sup>a</sup>	
	Strike	Non-Strike
School Board	526 (42.9)	110 (25.9)
Superintendent	349 (28.4)	87 (20.5)
Teachers' Association	21 (1.7)	79 (18.6)
District Negotiating Team	75 (6.1)	41 (9.6)
Teachers' Negotiating Team	8 (.7)	13 (3.1)
Undecided	61 (5.0)	49 (11.5)
Both School Board and Superintendent	170 (13.9)	25 (5.9)
Other	17 (1.4)	21 (4.9)
(Missing Responses: 76)		

<sup>a</sup>Column percentage in parentheses.

most responsible for causing the strike. This could be considered significant in a non-statistical sense.

Question II-4: "Did you feel that there were threats to your dignity as a person and a teacher prior to the strike vote?"

Threats to your dignity:	Number:	Percentage:
Very much so	900	53.3
Somewhat so	407	24.1
Had no such feeling	380	22.5
	<u>1,687</u>	<u>100.0</u>

Missing/Invalid Responses: 33

Responses indicated that 77.4 percent of all respondents reported their dignity threatened prior to the strike vote. Over half (53.3 percent) reported their dignity was "very much" threatened, while 24.1 percent reported their dignity was "somewhat" threatened.

Table 20 shows the crosstabulation of responses to question II-4 by strike behavior. Both striking (83.0 percent) and non-striking (61.8 percent) teachers reported their dignity being threatened. Striking teachers reported a higher degree of threat than non-striking teachers.

#### Summary of Issues and Causes of the Strike

Teachers did not perceive the issues of the strike as being limited only to salary, discipline, fringe benefits, and class size, but to "other" issues as well. The issues of teacher professionalism, integrity, and individual dignity were noteworthy in that they were written in by 8.4 percent of the respondents. The teachers reported that the factors generating the

Table 20. Crosstabulation of "Threats to Teacher Dignity" (QII-4) by Strike Behavior.

Dignity Threatened	Strike Behavior <sup>a</sup>	
	Strike	Non-Strike
Very much so	774 (62.4)	121 (27.6)
Somewhat so	256 (20.6)	150 (34.2)
Had no such feeling	211 (17.0)	168 (38.3)

(Missing Responses: 48)

<sup>a</sup>Column percentage in parentheses.

strike were not the issues themselves, but rather the way the issues were handled by the school board, superintendent, and central administration.

The teachers also reported prior to striking that they were concerned about threats to their dignity as persons and teachers, which seemed to indicate a pronounced tendency to strike against the school system to gain professional rights and recognition of individual self-worth and personal dignity.

### Influences

Question III-5: "The attitude of my building principal toward the strike was:"

Principal's attitude was:	Number:	Percentage:
Very supportive	132	7.9
Supportive	198	11.8
Neutral	829	49.5
Unsupportive	291	17.4
Very unsupportive	<u>224</u>	<u>13.4</u>
	1,674	100.0

Missing/Invalid Responses: 54

Responses indicated that one-half (49.5 percent) of the respondents reported perceiving the attitude of their building principal as being neutral toward the strike, while 19.7 percent reported the principal as supportive, and 30.8 percent reported the principal as unsupportive.

The crosstabulation of responses in Table 21 to question III-5 by teaching level revealed that elementary principals were perceived by their teachers to be less supportive in their attitude toward the strike than

Table 21. Crosstabulation of "The Attitude of My Building Principal"  
(QIII-5) by Teaching Level.<sup>a</sup>

Attitude of Principal Toward Strike	Teaching Level <sup>b</sup>			
	Elementary	Junior High	Senior High	Support
Supportive	116 (15.9)	80 (27.5)	119 (21.4)	15 (15.9)
Neutral	330 (45.2)	143 (49.1)	308 (55.2)	47 (50.0)
Unsupportive	284 (38.9)	68 (23.4)	131 (23.5)	32 (34.0)

(Missing Responses: 55)

<sup>a</sup>Chi-square = 68.830, df = 12, p < .0001.

<sup>b</sup>Column percentage in parentheses.

principals in the junior and senior high schools. This comparison showed that 38.9 percent of the elementary teachers responding perceived their principal as unsupportive in their attitude toward the strike, compared to a 23.4 percent response from junior high school teachers and 23.5 percent from senior high teachers.

A crosstabulation of the building principals' attitude toward the strike by strike behavior showed that 45.0 percent (552) of the striking teachers and 62.5 percent (275) of the non-striking teachers reported perceiving their principals as having a neutral attitude toward the strike. Both striking (33.6 percent) and non-striking teachers (23.1 percent) perceived the non-neutral principals as being less supportive in their attitude toward the strike.

Question III-6: "My building principal influenced me:"

Principal influenced me:	Number:	Percentage:
Greatly to strike	40	2.4
Somewhat to strike	127	7.5
Had no influence	1,441	85.1
Somewhat not to strike	65	3.8
Greatly not to strike	<u>21</u>	<u>1.2</u>
	1,694	100.0

Missing/Invalid Responses: 34

Responses indicated that 85.1 percent of the respondents reported that their building principals had no influence on their decision to either strike or not to strike. This means that only 14.9 percent of the teachers reported being influenced by their building principals. This percentage was less than

expected, since only 49.5 percent of the principals were perceived by teachers to have neutral attitudes toward the strike.

The building principals' influence on strike behavior was cross-tabulated with teaching levels and strike behavior. In the crosstabulation of teaching levels, support service personnel reported 18.7 percent principal influence. Elementary teachers reported 16.9 percent principal influence, senior high teachers reported 13.2 percent, while junior high teachers reported 12.0 percent. The elementary teachers might possibly be expected to show more principal influence than other teaching levels simply because their smaller staff sizes provide more opportunity for principal/teacher contact.

The crosstabulation of strike behavior by principal influence showed that 86.0 percent of the striking teachers and 82.4 percent of the non-striking teachers reported not being influenced by their building principal regarding their decision to either strike or not to strike. This would seem to indicate that non-striking teachers were more influenced by their building principal (17.6 percent) than striking teachers (14.0 percent). A summary of the responses is shown in Appendix C (Table C1).

Question III-7: "Teachers in my school influenced me:"

Teachers influenced me:	Number:	Percentage:
Greatly to strike	214	12.7
Somewhat to strike	559	33.0
Had no influence	818	48.4

Teachers influenced me:	Number:	Percentage:
Somewhat not to strike	70	4.1
Greatly not to strike	<u>30</u>	<u>1.8</u>
	1,691	100.0

Missing/Invalid Responses: 37

Responses indicated that 48.4 percent of the respondents reported that they were not influenced by teachers in their schools regarding their decision to either strike or not to strike, as compared to 51.6 percent who reported that teachers in their schools had influenced their decision.

A crosstabulation of responses to question III-7 by teaching level showed that teachers reported more influence at the senior high level (58.2 percent) than at the junior high (49.5 percent), elementary (48.2 percent), and support service (45.8 percent).

Further consideration showed that striking teachers reported being influenced more by teachers in their schools (61.2 percent) than non-striking teachers (25.4 percent). A summary of the responses is shown in Appendix C (Table C2).

Question III-8: "The teachers outside my school influenced me:"

Teachers influenced me:	Number:	Percentage:
Greatly to strike	96	5.7
Somewhat to strike	438	25.8
Had no influence	1,115	65.8
Somewhat not to strike	24	1.4
Greatly not to strike	<u>22</u>	<u>1.3</u>
	1,695	100.0

Missing/Invalid Responses: 33

Responses indicated that two-thirds (65.8 percent) of the respondents reported they were not influenced by teachers outside their schools regarding their decision to either strike or not to strike. A cross-tabulation of responses to question III-8 by strike behavior showed that striking teachers reported being influenced more by teachers outside their schools (42.8 percent) than non-striking teachers (10.7 percent). A summary of the responses is shown in Appendix C (Table C3).

Question III-9: "The teachers association influenced me:"

Association influenced me:	Number:	Percentage:
Greatly to strike	348	20.6
Somewhat to strike	617	36.5
Had no influence	563	33.3
Somewhat not to strike	88	5.2
Greatly not to strike	74	4.4
	<u>1,690</u>	<u>100.0</u>

Missing/Invalid Responses: 38

Responses indicated that two-thirds of the respondents reported they were influenced by the teachers' association. This would indicate that the teachers' association appeared to be a major influence upon teachers in their decision to either strike or not to strike. Over half (57.1 percent) of the teachers reported being influenced to strike by the teachers' association, as compared to 9.6 percent who reported the teachers' association influenced them not to strike.

A crosstabulation of teachers' association influence by strike behavior showed that striking teachers reported being more influenced by

the teachers' association (77.4 percent) than non-striking teachers (37.2 percent). A summary of the responses is shown in Appendix C (Table C4).

Question III-10: "My family influenced me:"

Family influenced me:	Number:	Percentage:
Greatly to strike	177	10.5
Somewhat to strike	350	20.9
Had no influence	955	56.9
Somewhat not to strike	119	7.1
Greatly not to strike	77	4.6
	<u>1,678</u>	<u>100.0</u>

Missing/Invalid Responses: 50

Responses indicated that 56.9 percent of the respondents reported their family as having no influence on their decision to either strike or not to strike.

A crosstabulation of family influence by marital status showed slightly more than one-half (50.7 percent) of the married teachers reported being influenced by the family as compared to 23.6 percent for single teachers. The crosstabulation also showed that the family seems to become a more significant influence as the number of dependents in the respondent's family increased.

A crosstabulation of family influence by strike behavior showed that striking teachers reported being more influenced by their family (43.8 percent) than non-striking teachers (41.3 percent). A summary of the responses is shown in Appendix C (Table C5).

## Question III-11: "The media influenced me:"

Media influenced me:	Number:	Percentage:
Greatly to strike	67	4.0
Somewhat to strike	383	22.6
Had no influence	1,208	71.2
Somewhat not to strike	29	1.7
Greatly not to strike	9	.5
	<u>1,696</u>	<u>100.0</u>

Missing/Invalid Responses: 32

Responses indicated that 71.2 percent of the respondents reported that the media had no influence on their decision to either strike or not to strike. A crosstabulation of media influence by strike behavior showed that only 34.7 percent of striking teachers and 12.4 percent of non-striking teachers reported that they were influenced by the media. This would indicate that the media seemed to have very little impact on teachers in their decision to either strike or not to strike. A summary of the responses is shown in Appendix C (Table C6).

#### Summary of Influences

Table 22 summarizes the responses of teachers regarding the various factors which may have influenced their decision to either strike or not to strike. The teachers' association was reported to have the greatest degree of influence among teachers (66.7 percent), followed by teachers in the school (51.6 percent), and family (43.1 percent). The building principal seemed to have the least influence upon teacher strike behavior (14.9 percent).

Table 22. Summary of Factors Influencing Teacher Strike Behavior.

Influencing Factors	Total Responses	Influence Responses <sup>a</sup>	Percentage
Teachers' association	1,690	1,127	66.7
Teachers in school	1,691	873	51.6
Family	1,678	723	43.1
Teachers outside school	1,695	580	34.2
The media	1,696	488	28.8
Building principal	1,694	253	14.9

<sup>a</sup>Total number of valid responses minus "had no influence" responses.

Table 23 summarizes the responses of striking teachers regarding the various factors which they reported influenced their strike behavior, while Table 24 summarizes the non-striking teachers. The greatest influence reported by striking teachers was the teachers' association (77.4 percent), followed by teachers within the school (61.2 percent), and family (43.8 percent). The greatest influence reported among non-striking teachers was the family (41.3 percent), followed by the teachers' association (37.2 percent), and teachers within the school (25.4 percent).

#### Strike Stresses

Question IV-12: "I found the strike:"

Degree of Stress:	Number	Percentage:
Highly stressful	859	50.4
Moderately stressful	680	39.9
Not stressful	165	9.7
	1,704	100.0

Missing/Invalid Responses: 24

Responses indicated that over 90.3 percent of the respondents reported they experienced stress during the strike. One-half (50.4 percent) of the teachers reported that the strike was highly stressful.

A crosstabulation of strike stress by teaching level is shown in Table 25. This comparison was at the  $p < .0001$  level. The comparison showed that elementary teachers reported experiencing a higher degree of stress than teachers at other levels. The "highly stressful" response was greater for elementary teachers (58.1 percent) than for support service

Table 23. Summary of Factors Reported to Have Influenced the Behavior of Teachers Who Struck.

Influencing Factors	Total Responses	Influence Responses <sup>a</sup>	Percentage
Teachers' association	1,238	958	77.4
Teachers in school	1,238	758	61.2
Family	1,227	538	43.8
Teachers outside school	1,239	530	42.8
The media	1,243	431	34.7
Building principal	1,236	173	14.0

<sup>a</sup>Total number of valid responses minus "had no influence" responses.

Table 24. Summary of Factors Reported to Have Influenced the Behavior of Teachers Who Did Not Strike.

Influencing Factors	Total Responses	Influence Responses <sup>a</sup>	Percentage
Family	443	183	41.3
Teachers' association	444	165	37.2
Teachers in school	445	113	25.4
Building principal	450	79	17.6
The media	445	55	12.4
Teachers outside school	448	48	10.7

<sup>a</sup>Total number of valid responses minus "had no influence" responses.

Table 25. Crosstabulation of "Strike Stress" (QIV-12) by Teaching Level.<sup>a</sup>

Strike Stress	Teaching Level <sup>b</sup>			
	Elementary	Jr. High	Sr. High	Support
Highly stressful	431 (58.1)	133 (45.1)	249 (44.0)	46 (46.0)
Moderately stressful	254 (34.2)	131 (44.4)	250 (44.2)	44 (44.0)
Not stressful	57 (7.7)	31 (10.5)	67 (11.8)	10 (10.0)

(Missing Responses: 25)

<sup>a</sup>Chi-square = 31.820, df = 6, p < .0001.

<sup>b</sup>Column percentage in parentheses.

personnel (46.0 percent), junior high (45.1 percent), and senior high teachers (44.0 percent). This finding may in part be attributed to various factors such as: (1) the smaller size of the elementary schools tending to enhance the interpersonal relationships of faculty and students; (2) the younger age of students might tend to make striking more difficult; (3) a lower percentage of teachers on strike make striking more difficult; and (4) a reported greater influence from principals tending to be less supportive in their attitudes toward strikes.

A crosstabulation of strike stress by sex in Table 26 showed a significant relationship at the  $p < .0001$  level. This comparison showed that female teachers reported experiencing a higher degree of stress than male teachers. The "highly stressful" response was 56.2 percent for female teachers, as compared to 37.6 percent for male teachers. The "not stressful" response was 15.3 percent for male teachers, as compared to 7.0 percent for female teachers.

A crosstabulation of strike stress by strike behavior in Table 27 showed a significant relationship at the  $p < .0001$  level. This comparison showed that non-striking teachers reported experiencing a greater degree of stress than striking teachers. The "highly stressful" response was 63.6 percent for non-striking teachers and 45.6 percent for striking teachers. The "not stressful" response was only 4.4 percent for non-striking teachers as compared to 11.7 percent for striking teachers.

Table 26. Crosstabulation of "Strike Stress" (QIV-12) by Sex.<sup>a</sup>

Strike Stress	Sex <sup>b</sup>	
	Male	Female
Highly stressful	207 (37.6)	607 (56.2)
Moderately stressful	259 (47.1)	397 (36.8)
Not stressful	84 (15.3)	76 (7.0)
(Missing Responses: 98)		

<sup>a</sup>Chi-square = 60.003, df = 2, p < .0001.

<sup>b</sup>Column percentage in parentheses.

Table 27. Crosstabulation of "Strike Stress" (QIV-12) by Strike Behavior.<sup>a</sup>

Strike Stress	Strike Behavior <sup>b</sup>	
	Strike	Non-Strike
Highly stressful	567 (45.6)	288 (63.6)
Moderately stressful	531 (42.7)	145 (32.0)
Not stressful	145 (11.7)	20 (4.4)
(Missing Responses: 32)		

<sup>a</sup> Chi-square = 48.738, df = 2, p < .0001.

<sup>b</sup> Column percentage in parentheses.

Question IV-13: "I experienced the most stress:"

Experienced most stress:	Number:	Percentage:
Before strike vote	307	18.3
After strike vote Sunday and prior to Monday's strike	413	24.6
During strike	670	39.9
Immediately after strike	150	8.9
Experienced no stress	90	5.3
Uncertain	50	3.0
	<u>1,680</u>	<u>100.0</u>

Missing/Invalid Responses: 48

Responses indicated that 39.9 percent of all respondents reported they experienced the most stress during the strike. Twenty-four (24.6) percent of the teachers reported that they experienced the most stress after the strike vote Sunday and prior to Monday's strike.

A crosstabulation of responses to question IV-13 by strike behavior showed that 30.8 percent of the striking teachers and 64.7 percent of the non-striking teachers reported that they experienced the most stress during the strike. The second most frequent response was "after the strike vote Sunday and prior to Monday's strike" by both striking (28.5 percent) and non-striking teachers (13.8 percent).

## Question IV-14: "Was the actual strike experience more stressful to you than you expected?"

More stressful than expected:	Number:	Percentage:
Yes	778	46.0
No	916	54.0
	<u>1,694</u>	<u>100.0</u>

Missing/Invalid Responses: 34

Responses indicated that 46.0 percent of all respondents reported the strike as being more stressful than expected, while 54.0 percent said it was not.

A crosstabulation of stress expectations with teaching level, sex, and strike behavior showed significant findings for each. The "yes" responses were significantly greater for elementary teachers (51.2 percent) than for junior high (42.7 percent), senior high (42.1 percent), and support service personnel (38.4). The significant level was  $p = .0017$ , yielding a chi-square of 15.17545 with 3 degrees of freedom.

The "yes" responses were greater among female teachers (50.8 percent) than male teachers (35.5 percent). This was significant at the  $p < .0001$  level, yielding a chi-square of 33.73192 with 1 degree of freedom.

The "yes" responses were greater among non-striking teachers (55.8 percent) than striking teachers (42.2 percent). This was significant at the  $p < .0001$  level, yielding a chi-square of 23.94125 with 1 degree of freedom.

Question IV-15: "My chief worry during the strike was:"

Chief worry was:	Number:	Percentage:
Meeting financial obligations	458	28.4
Loss of job	244	15.1
Break with teacher friends	291	18.1
Administrative retaliation	156	9.7
Student disapproval	22	1.4
Students falling behind	157	9.7
Family disapproval	11	.7

Chief worry was:	Number:	Percentage:
Effect on pending retirement	24	1.5
Other	245	15.2
No worry	<u>3</u>	<u>.2</u>
	1,611	100.0

Missing/Invalid Responses: 117

Responses indicated that 28.4 percent of all respondents reported that their chief worry during the strike was meeting financial obligations. The second most frequent response was "break with teacher friends" (18.1 percent), followed by "other" (15.2 percent) and "loss of job" (15.1 percent).

Table 28 shows the tabulation of responses to question IV-15 from striking teachers. Thirty-five (35.2) percent of striking teachers reported that meeting financial obligations was their chief worry during the strike, followed by loss of job (17.9 percent), "other" (12.6 percent), and administrative retaliation (12.0 percent).

Table 29 shows the tabulation of responses to question IV-15 from non-striking teachers. Forty-three (42.9) percent of non-striking teachers reported that breaking with teacher friends was their chief worry during the strike, followed by "other" (22.5 percent), and students falling behind (11.8 percent).

Table 28. Response to "Chief Worry During the Strike" (QIV-15) from Teachers Who Struck.

Chief worry was	Number of Responses	Percentage
Meeting financial obligations	418	35.2
Loss of job	212	17.9
Break with teacher friends	110	9.3
Administrative retaliation	143	12.0
Student disapproval	17	1.4
Students falling behind	106	8.9
Family disapproval	9	.7
Effect on pending retirement	20	1.7
Other	149	12.6
No worry	<u>3</u>	<u>.3</u>
	1,187	100.0

(Missing/Invalid Responses: 124)

Table 29. Response to "Chief Worry During the Strike" (QIV-15) from Teachers Who Did Not Strike.

Chief worry was	Number of Responses	Percentage
Meeting financial obligations	39	9.3
Loss of job	32	7.7
Break with teacher friends	179	42.9
Administrative retaliation	13	3.1
Student disapproval	5	1.2
Students falling behind	49	11.8
Family disapproval	2	.5
Effect on pending retirement	4	1.0
Other	94	22.5
No worry	—	—
	417	100.0

(Missing/Invalid Responses: 124)

Question IV-16: "When were you most uncertain about your decision to either strike or not to strike?"

Most uncertain:	Number:	Percentage:
Before strike vote	621	36.4
After strike vote Sunday and prior to Monday's strike	289	17.0
During strike	92	5.4
After strike	26	1.5
Same level of uncertainty throughout	80	4.7
At no time was I uncertain	<u>596</u>	<u>35.0</u>
	1,704	100.0

Missing/Invalid Responses: 24

Responses indicated that 36.4 percent of all respondents reported they were most uncertain about their strike decision before the strike vote. Thirty-five percent of the respondents reported that at no time were they uncertain about their decision to either strike or not to strike.

A crosstabulation of responses to question IV-16 by strike behavior showed that striking teachers reported more uncertainty (68.7 percent) about their strike decision than non-striking teachers (54.9 percent).

#### Summary of Strike Stresses

The list below summarizes some of the more significant information in the data concerning strike stresses:

1. 90.0 percent (1,539) of all respondents reported they experienced stress during the strike. Over half (859) of the teachers perceived the strike as being highly stressful.

2. Elementary teachers reported a higher degree of stress than teachers at other levels.
3. Female teachers reported a higher degree of stress than male teachers.
4. Non-striking teachers reported a higher degree of stress than striking teachers.
5. 39.9 percent (670) of the respondents reported they experienced the most stress during the strike, while 24.6 percent (413) reported they experienced the most stress after the strike vote on Sunday just prior to Monday's strike.
6. 46.0 percent (778) of the teachers reported the strike as being more stressful than expected, while 54 percent (916) said it was not. The percentage of teachers who perceived the strike as being more stressful than expected was greater among elementary teachers, female teachers, and non-striking teachers.
7. Striking teachers reported that their chief worries during the strike were: (1) meeting financial obligations; (2) loss of job; (3) "other" concerns; and (4) administrative retaliation, in that order.
8. Non-striking teachers reported that their chief worries during the strike were: (1) breaks with colleagues; and (2) "other" concerns, in that order.

9. Striking and non-striking teachers showed almost equal concern about: students falling behind in their studies; family disapproval; student disapproval; and effect on pending retirement.
10. Striking teachers reported more uncertainty (68.7 percent) about their strike decision than non-striking teachers (54.9 percent).

#### Relationships

Question V-17: 'Did you lose teacher friends because of the strike?'

Did you lose teacher friends:	Number:	Percentage:
Yes	381	22.4
No	1,037	61.0
Uncertain	<u>283</u>	<u>16.6</u>
	1,701	100.0

Missing/Invalid Responses: 27

Responses indicated that 61.0 percent of all respondents reported that they did not lose teacher friends because of the strike, while 22.4 percent reported they did.

A crosstabulation of responses to question V-17 by strike behavior in Table 30 showed that 31.8 percent of non-striking teachers reported losing teacher friends because of the strike, as compared to 19.0 percent for striking teachers.

Table 30. Crosstabulation of "Loss of Teacher Friends" (QV-17) by Strike Behavior.<sup>a</sup>

Lose Teacher Friends	Strike Behavior <sup>b</sup>	
	Strike	Non-Strike
Yes	236 (19.0)	143 (31.8)
No	825 (66.3)	209 (46.5)
Uncertain	184 (14.8)	97 (21.6)

(Missing Responses: 34)

<sup>a</sup>Chi-square = 54.780, df - 2, p < .0001.

<sup>b</sup>Column percentage in parentheses.

Question V-18: "Did you gain teacher friends because of the strike?"

Did you gain teacher friends:	Number:	Percentage:
Yes	915	53.9
No	612	36.0
Uncertain	<u>171</u>	<u>10.1</u>
	1,698	100.0

Missing/Invalid Responses: 30

Responses indicated that 53.9 percent of all respondents reported that they did gain teacher friends because of the strike, while 36.0 percent reported they did not.

A crosstabulation of responses to question V-18 by strike behavior in Table 31 showed that 67.0 percent of striking teachers reported gaining friends because of the strike, as compared to 17.4 percent for non-striking teachers.

Question V-19: "My post-strike relationships with the teachers in my school are:"

Relationships are:	Number:	Percentage:
More harmonious	391	23.1
Less harmonious	346	20.5
About the same as before the strike	<u>954</u>	<u>56.4</u>
	1,691	100.0

Missing/Invalid Responses: 37

Responses indicated that 56.4 percent of all respondents reported the post-strike relationships with teachers in their schools about the same as before the strike. Twenty-three (23.1) percent of the respondents reported

Table 31. Crosstabulation of "Gain Teacher Friends" (QV-18) by Strike Behavior.<sup>a</sup>

Gain Teacher Friends	Strike Behavior <sup>b</sup>	
	Strike	Non-Strike
Yes	833 (67.0)	78 (17.4)
No	299 (24.0)	310 (69.0)
Uncertain	112 (9.0)	59 (13.2)

(Missing Responses: 37)

<sup>a</sup>Chi-square = 342.862, df = 2, p < .0001.

<sup>b</sup>Column percentage in parentheses.

more harmonious relationships with teachers in their schools, while 20.5 percent reported less harmonious relationships.

A crosstabulation of responses to question V-19 by strike behavior in Table 32 showed that 30.4 percent of the striking teachers reported more harmonious relationships with teachers in their schools, as compared to 2.9 percent for non-striking teachers. Sixteen (16.5) percent of the striking teachers reported less harmonious relationships with teachers in their schools, as compared to 31.5 percent for non-striking teachers. Fifty-three (53.2) percent of the striking teachers reported their relationships with teachers in their schools about the same as before the strike, as compared to 65.6 percent for non-striking teachers. The data showed that striking teachers reported more harmonious relationships with teachers in their schools, while non-striking teachers reported less harmonious relationships with teachers in their schools.

Question V-20: "My post-strike relationships with the people who supervise me in my school are:"

Relationships are:	Number:	Percentage:
More harmonious	114	6.7
Less harmonious	205	12.0
About the same as before the strike	<u>1,383</u>	<u>81.3</u>
	1,702	100.0

Missing/Invalid Responses: 26

Table 32. Crosstabulation of "Teacher Post Strike Relationship" (QV-19) by Strike Behavior.<sup>a</sup>

Teacher Relationship	Strike Behavior <sup>b</sup>	
	Strike	Non-Strike
More harmonious	375 (30.4)	13 (2.9)
Less harmonious	203 (16.5)	141 (31.5)
About the same	656 (53.2)	294 (65.6)
(Missing Responses: 46)		

<sup>a</sup>Chi-square = 152.962, df = 2, p < .0001.

<sup>b</sup>Column percentage in parentheses.

Responses indicated that 81.3 percent of all respondents reported the post-strike relationships with their supervisors about the same as before the strike.

A crosstabulation of responses to question V-20 by strike behavior in Table 33 showed that 6.3 percent of striking teachers reported more harmonious relationships with their supervisors, as compared to 8.0 percent for non-striking teachers. Fifteen percent of the striking teachers reported less harmonious relationships with their supervisors, as compared to 3.8 percent for non-striking teachers. Seventy-nine (78.7) percent of the striking teachers reported their relationships with their supervisors about the same as before the strike, as compared to 88.2 percent for non-striking teachers. The data showed that non-striking teachers reported more harmonious relationships with people who supervise them, while striking teachers reported less harmonious relationships.

Question V-21: "My post-strike relationships with the students in my school are:"

Relationships are:	Number	Percentage:
More harmonious	182	10.8
Less harmonious	21	1.2
About the same as before the strike	<u>1,495</u>	<u>88.0</u>
	1,698	100.0

Missing/Invalid Responses: 30

Table 33. Crosstabulation of "My Supervisory Post-Strike Relationship" (QV-20) by Strike Behavior.<sup>a</sup>

Relationships With Supervisor	Strike Behavior <sup>b</sup>	
	Strike	Non-Strike
More harmonious	78 (6.3)	36 (8.0)
Less harmonious	187 (15.0)	17 (3.8)
About the same	978 (78.7)	397 (88.2)
(Missing Responses: 35)		

<sup>a</sup>Chi-square = 39.967, df = 2, p < .0001.

<sup>b</sup>Column percentage in parentheses.

Responses indicated that 88.0 percent of all respondents reported that the post-strike relationships with their students were about the same as before the strike.

A crosstabulation of responses to question V-21 by strike behavior in Table 34 showed that 12.8 percent of striking teachers reported more harmonious relationships with their students, as compared to 5.1 percent for non-striking teachers. Only .8 percent of the striking teachers reported less harmonious relationships with their students, as compared to 2.0 percent for non-striking teachers. Eighty-six (86.4) percent of the striking teachers reported relationships with their students were about the same as before the strike, while 92.9 percent of the non-striking teachers reported unchanging relationships with their students.

#### Summary of Relationships

The list below summarizes some of the more significant information in the data concerning strike relationships.

1. 22.4 percent (381) of the respondents reported losing teacher friends because of the strike. The loss of friends was reported to be greater (31.8 percent) among non-striking teachers than striking teachers (19.0 percent).
2. 53.9 percent (915) of the respondents reported gaining teacher friends because of the strike. It was reported that 67.0 percent of striking

Table 34. Crosstabulation of "My Student Post-Strike Relationship" (QV-21) by Strike Behavior.<sup>a</sup>

Relationships	Strike Behavior <sup>b</sup>	
	Strike	Non-Strike
More harmonious	159 (12.8)	23 (5.1)
Less harmonious	10 (.8)	9 (2.0)
About the same	1,070 (86.4)	418 (92.9)
(Missing Responses: 39)		

<sup>a</sup>Chi-square = 24.039, df = 2, p < .0001.

<sup>b</sup>Column percentage in parentheses.

teachers gained teacher friends because of the strike, as compared to 17.4 percent for non-striking teachers.

3. Teachers reported their post-strike relationships with the teachers in their schools as being more harmonious than before the strike. This was most evident since 67.0 percent of striking teachers reported gaining teacher friends. Striking teachers reported more harmonious relationships with teachers in their schools, while non-striking teachers reported less.
4. Teachers reported their post-strike relationships with the people who supervise them to be less harmonious than before the strike. Non-striking teachers reported more harmonious relationships with people who supervise them, while striking teachers reported less.
5. Teachers reported their post-strike relationships with their students as being more harmonious than before the strike. Both striking and non-striking teachers reported more harmonious relationships with students in their schools.

#### Strike Perceptions

Question VI-22: "When did the teachers appear most unified?"

Most unified:	Number:	Percentage:
Before strike vote	181	10.7
After strike vote Sunday and prior to Monday's strike	146	8.6
During strike	1,059	62.7

Most unified:	Number:	Percentage:
Immediately after strike	81	4.9
Not sure	<u>221</u>	<u>13.1</u>
	1,688	100.0

Missing/Invalid Responses: 40

Responses indicated that 62.7 percent of all respondents reported that teachers appeared most unified during the strike. The next most prevalent response was "not sure" (13.1 percent), while 10.7 percent reported the most unity before the strike vote.

A crosstabulation of responses to question VI-22 by strike behavior showed that 76.5 percent (949) of the striking teachers reported that teachers appeared most unified during the strike. The responses among non-striking teachers were: 32.8 percent (144) "not sure"; 25.3 percent (111) "before strike vote"; and 24.4 percent (107) "during the strike."

Question VI-23: "Teachers' association leadership during the negotiation and strike period appeared to be:"

Leadership was:	Number:	Percentage:
Good	1,178	69.9
Fair	268	15.9
Poor	137	8.1
Do not know	<u>102</u>	<u>6.1</u>
	1,685	100.0

Missing/Invalid Responses: 43

Responses indicated that 69.9 percent of all respondents reported the teachers' association leadership as good during the negotiation and strike period. A crosstabulation of responses to question VI-23 by strike behavior in

Table 35 showed that 95.5 percent of striking teachers reported the teachers' association as good or fair, as compared to 57.6 percent for non-striking teachers.

Question VI-24: "Do you feel teacher strikes are unprofessional?"

Strikes unprofessional:	Number:	Percentage:
Yes	444	26.1
No	1,039	61.1
Uncertain	<u>217</u>	<u>12.8</u>
	1,700	100.0

Missing/Invalid Responses: 28

Responses indicated that 61.1 percent of all respondents reported that teacher strikes are not unprofessional, while 26.1 percent reported that strikes are unprofessional. Thirteen (12.8) percent were uncertain. A crosstabulation of responses to question VI-24 by strike behavior in Table 36 showed that 75.2 percent of the striking teachers reported that teacher strikes are not unprofessional, as compared to 59.7 percent of the non-striking teachers who reported that strikes were unprofessional. Eleven percent of the striking teachers were uncertain, as compared to 17.6 percent for non-striking teachers.

Table 35. Crosstabulation of "Teachers' Association Leadership" (QVI-23) by Strike Behavior.

Leadership was	Strike Behavior <sup>a</sup>	
	Strike	Non-Strike
Good	1,019 (81.8)	154 (35.6)
Fair	171 (13.7)	95 (22.0)
Poor	39 (3.1)	98 (22.7)
Do Not Know	17 (1.4)	85 (19.7)
(Missing Responses: 50)		

<sup>a</sup>Column percentage in parentheses.

Table 36. Crosstabulation of "Are Teacher Strikes Professional" (QVI-24) by Strike Behavior.

Strikes Unprofessional	Strike Behavior <sup>a</sup>	
	Strike	Non-Strike
Yes	172 (13.9)	268 (59.7)
No	933 (75.2)	102 (22.7)
Uncertain	136 (11.0)	79 (17.6)

(Missing Responses: 38)

<sup>a</sup>Column percentage in parentheses.

Question VI-25: "Under similar circumstances, would you again make the same decision to either strike or not to strike?"

Same decision:	Number:	Percentage:
Yes	1,379	80.7
No	76	4.4
Uncertain	<u>253</u>	<u>14.9</u>
	1,708	100.0

Missing/Invalid Responses: 20

Responses indicated that 80.7 percent of all respondents reported that under similar circumstances they would make the same decision to either strike or not to strike, while 4.4 percent reported they would not make the same decision. Fifteen (14.8) percent were uncertain.

A crosstabulation of responses to question VI-25 by strike behavior in Table 37 showed that 82.1 percent of striking teachers would make the same decision to strike, as compared to 77.8 percent of non-striking teachers who reported they would make the same decision not to strike. Fourteen (13.7) percent of striking teachers indicated they were uncertain about striking again, as compared to 17.4 percent for non-striking teachers.

Question VI-26: "I feel the strike produced:"

Strike produced:	Number:	Percentage:
Resolution of the issues	107	6.3
Greater dignity for teachers	332	19.6
Both resolution of the issues and greater dignity	669	39.6
No gains	120	7.1

Table 37. Crosstabulation of "Would You Make the Same Strike Decision"  
(QVI-25) by Strike Behavior.

Same Decision	Strike Behavior <sup>a</sup>	
	Strike	Non-Strike
Yes	1,024 (82.1)	353 (77.8)
No	52 (4.2)	22 (4.8)
Uncertain	171 (13.7)	79 (17.4)

(Missing Responses: 27)

<sup>a</sup>Column percentage in parentheses.

Strike produced:	Number:	Percentage:
Unfavorable results	131	7.8
Uncertain	178	10.5
Other	<u>153</u>	<u>9.1</u>
	1,690	100.0

Missing/Invalid Responses: 38

Responses indicated that 39.6 percent of all respondents reported that the strike produced both resolution of the issues involved and greater dignity for teachers, while 19.6 percent reported the strike produced only greater dignity for teachers. Seven (7.1) percent of the respondents reported the strike produced no gains, while 7.8 percent reported it produced unfavorable results.

A crosstabulation of responses to question VI-26 by strike behavior in Table 38 showed that 49.1 percent of striking teachers reported that the strike produced both resolution of the issues and greater dignity for teachers, as compared to 13.3 percent for non-striking teachers. Twenty-five (24.9) percent of the striking teachers reported that the strike produced only greater dignity for teachers, as compared to 5.0 percent for non-striking teachers. Twenty-three (22.7 percent) of non-striking teachers reported that the strike produced unfavorable results, as compared to 2.3 for striking teachers. Sixteen (15.8) percent of non-striking teachers reported that the strike produced no gains, as compared to 4.0 percent for striking teachers.

Table 38. Crosstabulation of "I Feel the Strike Produced" (QVI-26) by Strike Behavior.

Strike Produced	Strike Behavior <sup>a</sup>	
	Strike	Non-Strike
Resolution of issues	64 (5.2)	42 (9.5)
Greater dignity for teachers	308 (24.9)	22 (5.0)
Both resolution of issues and greater dignity for teachers	607 (49.1)	59 (13.3)
No gains	50 (4.0)	70 (15.8)
Unfavorable results	29 (2.3)	101 (22.7)
Uncertain	77 (6.2)	101 (22.7)
Other	102 (8.2)	49 (11.0)
(Missing Responses: 47)		

<sup>a</sup>Column percentage in parentheses.

A review of the responses to question VI-26 seemed to indicate that teachers, especially those on strike (74.0 percent), perceived the strike as producing greater dignity for teachers.

Question VI-27: "Which of the following had the most influence on your decision(s) prior to, during, and after the strike?"

Influence Factor:	Order of Influence:*
Issues involved	first
Fellow teachers	second
Teachers' association	third
Family	fourth**
Central administration	fourth**

\*Teachers were to indicate only 4 in order of significance.

\*\*Tied

The following response categories were included in the questionnaire but were ranked as fifth or lower by respondents: media, friends, building principal, community, and other.

Responses indicated that all respondents reported the issues as having the most influence on their decision(s) prior to, during, and after the strike, followed by the influences of fellow teachers and the teachers' association. The family and central administration were reported as influencing teachers equally regarding their decision(s) prior to, during, and after the strike.

A tabulation of responses to question VI-27 by striking (Table 39) and non-striking teachers (Table 40) showed that striking teachers were influenced by the issues involved, the teachers' association, fellow teachers, and the

Table 39. Responses to QVI-27 from Striking Teachers.

Influence Factor	Order of Influence
Issues involved	First
Teacher association	Second
Fellow teachers	Third
Central administration	Fourth

Table 40. Responses to QVI-27 from Non-Striking Teachers.

Influence Factor	Order of Influence
Other reasons	First
Family	Second
Fellow teachers	Third
Issues involved	Fourth

central administration, in that order, while the non-striking teachers were influenced by "other" reasons, family, fellow teachers, and the issues involved.

Question VI-28: "The second phase of this study will be in-depth interviews with certain individuals who respond to this questionnaire.

"Your willingness to participate in the second phase would be appreciated. Please give your phone if you would like to participate. \_\_\_\_\_"  
home phone

Response:

517 respondents (30 percent) gave phone numbers and were willing to participate in the second phase of this study. Of those giving phone numbers, 412 (79.7 percent) were striking teachers, and 105 (20.3 percent) were non-striking teachers.

Table 41 shows the responses by strike behavior and teaching level.

#### Summary of Strike Perceptions

The list below summarizes some of the more significant information in the data concerning strike perceptions.

1. 62.7 percent (1,059) of the teachers perceived themselves as being most unified during the strike. 76.5 percent (949) of the striking teachers reported that teachers appeared most unified during the strike. The responses among non-striking teachers were: 32.8 percent (144) "not sure"; 25.3 percent (111) "before strike vote"; and 24.4 percent (107) "during the strike."

Table 41. Crosstabulation of "Respondents Giving Phone Numbers" (QVI-28) by Strike Behavior and Teaching Level.

Teaching Level	Strike Behavior <sup>a</sup>	
	Strike	Non-Strike
Elementary	170 (41.3)	44 (41.9)
Junior High	91 (22.1)	19 (18.1)
Senior High	151 (36.6)	42 (40.0)

<sup>a</sup> Column percentage in parentheses.

2. 69.9 percent (1,178) of the respondents reported the leadership of the teachers' association during the negotiation and strike period as good. 81.8 percent (1,019) of the striking teachers reported the leadership as good, compared to 35.6 percent (154) for non-striking teachers.
3. 61.1 percent (1,039) of the respondents reported they did not feel that teacher strikes were unprofessional. 75.2 percent (933) of the striking teachers reported that teacher strikes were not unprofessional, as compared to 59.7 percent (268) of non-striking teachers who reported that strikes were unprofessional.
4. Under similar future strike circumstances, 82.1 percent (1,024) of striking teachers would again make the same strike decision, as compared to 77.8 percent (353) for non-striking teachers.
5. 59.2 percent (664) of the teachers reported the strike produced greater dignity for teachers. This was especially true among striking teachers, where 74.0 percent reported this perception.
6. Striking teachers were influenced in their decisions prior to, during, and after the strike by: (1) the issues involved; (2) the teachers' association; (3) fellow teachers; and (4) family and central administration, in that order. Non-striking teachers were influenced in their decisions by: (1) "other" reasons; (2) family; (3) fellow teachers; and (4) the issues involved, in that order.

### Summary of Findings

The findings are summarized as follows:

1. Teachers from 91 of the 97 schools in the district participated in the study.\*
2. 63 percent of the teachers in the school district participated in the study.
3. The distribution of teacher participants within the district by teaching levels were as follows: 47 percent elementary teachers; 18 percent junior high teachers; and 35 percent senior high teachers. The percentage of teacher responses by teaching levels approximated the teaching level percentages in the district.

#### Strike Behavior Data

1. 63 percent of all respondents reported walking the informational picket line prior to the strike vote.
2. 91 percent of all respondents reported attending the meeting at which the strike vote was taken.
3. 61 percent of all respondents who attended the strike vote meeting voted to strike. 19 percent of the respondents who voted not to strike actually struck following the strike vote meeting.

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\*All percent figures in the summary of findings have been rounded to the nearest whole number.

4. 74 percent of all respondents reported striking. 26 percent reported not striking. The percentage of strike and non-strike responses closely approximated the strike and non-strike percentages within the school district.
5. 5 percent of all respondents reported their behavior as having changed during the strike. 3 percent of the teachers chose to change from a non-strike to a strike status. 2 percent changed from a strike to a non-strike status.

#### Striker Characteristic Data

1. Teaching level was found to be significantly related to strike behavior. The percentage of striking teachers by teaching levels were as follows: 79 percent junior high schools; 76 percent senior high schools; 70 percent elementary schools; and 69 percent support service personnel.
2. Age was significantly related to strike behavior. The younger and older teachers seemed somewhat less inclined to strike.
3. Sex was significantly related to strike behavior. Male teachers seemed more inclined to strike than female teachers.
4. Marital status was not significantly related to strike behavior.
5. Number of dependents supported by teachers was not significantly related to strike behavior.

6. Teacher tenure was significantly related to strike behavior. Non-tenured teachers seemed somewhat more hesitant to strike than tenured teachers.
7. Years teaching in the district was not significantly related to strike behavior, whereas the total number of years teaching experience was significantly related to strike behavior. The age variable appeared to be a more important factor in strike behavior than was the variable of total years teaching experience.
8. Membership in a professional organization was significantly related to strike behavior. A high percentage of striking teachers were members of a professional organization. The Tucson Education Association (TEA) appeared to be the most influential professional organization during the strike.
9. An additional source of income for teachers was not significantly related to strike behavior.
10. Having a spouse who teaches appeared to have little influence on strike behavior and was not significantly related to strike behavior.
11. Having a spouse who teaches in the district was significantly related to strike behavior. A husband and wife who both teach in the district tended to make the same decision to either strike or not to strike. This appeared to be especially true among non-striking couples.

### Additional Strike Information

1. 69 percent of all respondents reported they walked the picket line during the strike.
2. 78 percent of all respondents reported attending the meeting for the termination of the strike.
3. 78 percent of all respondents who reported attending the strike termination meeting voted to terminate the strike. 22 percent voted "no" for strike termination.

### Issues and Causes of the Strike

1. Teachers did not perceive the issues of the strike as being limited to salary, discipline, fringe benefits, and class size. 50 percent chose "other" as the major issue of the strike. 8 percent wrote teacher "professionalism" or "integrity" as their reason for choosing "other." 35 percent chose "salary" as the major issue of the strike, followed by 11 percent "class size" and 3 percent "fringe benefits."
2. Striking and non-striking teachers differed in their reported perceptions as to the major issue of the strike. 55 percent of the striking teachers chose "other" as the major issues of the strike, while 55 percent of the non-striking teachers chose "salary" as the major issue of the strike.
3. 79 percent of all respondents reported that the factors generating the strike were not the issues themselves, but to an important extent,

the way the issues were handled by the school board, superintendent, and central administration. This viewpoint was reported by 87 percent of the striking teachers and 56 percent of the non-striking teachers.

4. 85 percent of the striking teachers and 52 percent of the non-striking teachers reported that the school board and superintendent were most responsible for causing the strike.
5. 77 percent of all respondents reported that there were threats to their dignity as persons and teachers. 83 percent of the striking teachers and 62 percent of the non-striking teachers reported their dignity threatened. Striking teachers reported a higher degree of threat than non-striking teachers.

#### Influences and Attitudes

1. 50 percent of all respondents reported they perceived the attitude of their building principal as being neutral toward the strike.  
Elementary principals were perceived by their teachers to be less supportive in their attitude toward the strike than were principals in the junior and senior high schools.
2. 15 percent of all respondents reported being influenced by their building principal in their decision to either strike or not to strike.  
Non-striking teachers reported to have been influenced more by their building principal than did striking teachers. The responses

indicated that the building principals' influence upon strike behavior was minimal, as compared to other influencing factors discussed in this study.

3. 52 percent of all respondents reported being influenced by teachers in their schools regarding their decision to either strike or not to strike. This influence was greater among striking teachers and teachers at the senior high level.
4. 34 percent of all respondents reported being influenced by teachers outside their schools. This influence was greater among striking teachers.
5. 67 percent of all respondents reported they were influenced by the teachers' association. 57 percent of the teachers reported they were influenced to strike by the teachers' association. 10 percent reported that they were influenced not to strike by the teachers' association.
6. 43 percent of all respondents reported being influenced by their family regarding their decision to either strike or not to strike. 44 percent of the striking teachers and 41 percent of the non-striking teachers were influenced by their family. The family appeared to be one of the more significant influences, especially among non-striking teachers, when compared to other influencing factors in this study.
7. 28 percent of all respondents reported being influenced by the media in their decision to either strike or not to strike. This influence

appeared greater among striking teachers. Overall, the media had a relatively diminished impact on teachers in their strike decision.

### Strike Stresses

1. 90 percent of all respondents reported they experienced stress during the strike. 50 percent of the teachers perceived the strike as being highly stressful.
2. Elementary teachers reported a higher degree of stress than teachers at other levels.
3. Female teachers reported a higher degree of stress than male teachers.
4. Non-striking teachers reported a higher degree of stress than striking teachers.
5. 40 percent of all respondents reported they experienced the most stress during the strike. 25 percent reported they experienced the most stress after the strike vote on Sunday just prior to Monday's strike.
6. 46 percent of all respondents reported the strike as being more stressful than expected. 54 percent reported that it was not. The percentage of teachers who perceived the strike as being more stressful than expected was greater among elementary teachers, female teachers, and non-striking teachers.

7. Striking teachers reported that their chief worries during the strike were: (1) meeting financial obligations; (2) loss of job; (3) "other" concerns; and (4) administrative retaliation, in that order.
8. Non-striking teachers reported that their chief worries during the strike were: (1) break in relationships with colleagues; and (2) "other" concerns, in that order.
9. Striking and non-striking teachers showed almost equal concerns about: students falling behind in their studies; family disapproval; student disapproval; and effect on pending retirement.
10. 69 percent of the striking teachers and 55 percent of the non-striking teachers reported a period of uncertainty in their strike decision.

#### Relationships

1. 22 percent of all respondents reported losing teacher friends because of the strike. 32 percent of the non-striking teachers and 19 percent of the striking teachers reported losing teacher friends.
2. 54 percent of all respondents reported gaining teacher friends because of the strike. 67 percent of the striking teachers and 17 percent of the non-striking teachers reported gaining teacher friends.
3. Teachers reported their post-strike relationships with the teachers in their schools as being more harmonious than before the strike. This was most evident since 67 percent of striking teachers reported gaining teacher friends because of the strike. Striking teachers

reported more harmonious relationships with teachers in their schools. Non-striking teachers reported less harmonious relationships.

4. Teachers reported their post-strike relationships with the people who supervise them to be less harmonious than before the strike. Non-striking teachers reported more harmonious relationships with their supervisors. Striking teachers reported less harmonious relationships with their supervisors.
5. Teachers reported their post-strike relationships with their students as being more harmonious than before the strike. Both striking and non-striking teachers reported more harmonious relationships with students in their schools.

#### Strike Perceptions

1. 63 percent of all respondents perceived the teachers as being most unified during the strike. 77 percent of the striking teachers reported that teachers appeared most unified during the strike, whereas non-striking teachers reported 24 percent.
2. 70 percent of all respondents reported the leadership of the teachers' association during the negotiation and strike period as good. 82 percent of the striking teachers and 36 percent of the non-striking teachers reported the leadership as good.

3. 61 percent of all respondents reported they did not feel that teacher strikes were unprofessional. 75 percent of the striking teachers reported that teacher strikes were not unprofessional. 60 percent of the non-striking teachers reported that strikes were unprofessional.
4. 82 percent of the striking teachers and 78 percent of the non-striking teachers reported they would again make the same strike decision, under similar future circumstances.
5. 60 percent of all respondents reported that the strike produced greater dignity for teachers. 74 percent of the striking teachers and 18 percent of the non-striking teachers reported this perception.
6. Striking teachers were influenced in their decisions prior to, during, and after the strike by: (1) the issues involved; (2) teachers' association; (3) fellow teachers; and (4) central administration, in that order. Non-striking teachers were influenced in their decisions by: (1) "other" reasons; (2) family; (3) fellow teachers; and (4) the issues involved, in that order.

## CHAPTER 5

### ANALYSIS OF THE DATA

In this chapter, answers to the six questions posed at the beginning of this study are presented. The chapter is organized as follows: (a) the recapitulation of the theoretical framework used in this study to analyze the data, and (b) a presentation of the strike questions in the study. A model depicting the flow of events within the school district prior to the strike is presented to assist in analyzing the data.

#### Recapitulation of Theoretical Framework

The theory, or specialized viewpoint, from which the data of this study was viewed has its basis in perceptual psychology. Certain significant ideas and concepts pertaining to perceptual psychology are presented in the following.

The behavior of each person is the product of his perceptions or personal meanings. The way each person behaves is a direct expression of the way things seem to him at the moment of action. People do not behave according to the "facts" as they seem to others, but tend to act according to the "facts" as they perceive them. People do not respond to various situations in terms of outsiders' understandings of these situations, but in terms of what

the personal meanings are for them. How each person behaves and the decisions he makes is thus a product of his unique and personal perceptual framework.

The organization of a person's perceptual framework is a function of his need for personal adequacy. This need for adequacy provides the major direction and drive for his actions.

The theoretical concepts used to analyze the data are recapitulated in the following for convenient reference:

- Empathy: Effective social relationships require sensitivity and understanding of how things seem to the other person.

- Acceptance: Persons who are accepted as people of dignity and worth tend to become more adequate in their social relationships.

- Stress: Persons under stress tend to undergo a narrowing of perceptions, behaving in less flexible and adaptive ways.

- Adequacy: Persons whose sense of adequacy is challenged or threatened by attempts at manipulation and control tend to retaliate.

- Perceptual Framework: Persons in both management and labor positions need to work toward adequate social relationships through the development of positive and productive perceptual and behavioral frameworks.

#### Strike Questions Under Study

In the following, the answers to the strike questions posed in this study are presented.

## Issues and Causes

What patterns of perceptions were reported by teachers regarding the impact of the strike on teachers' viewpoints concerning various of the issues and causes of the strike?

Teachers did not perceive the issues of the strike as being limited to salary, discipline, fringe benefits, and class size. One-half (50 percent) of all respondents perceived "other" things as the major issue of the strike, among which 8 percent wrote "professionalism" or "integrity" as their reason for choosing "other." One-third (35 percent) of all respondents perceived "salary" as the major issue of the strike, followed by "class size" (11 percent), "fringe benefits" (3 percent), and "discipline" (2 percent).

The major issues of the strike tend to indicate areas of greatest teacher concerns during the strike period. It should be noted that the perceptual process is a selective one. A teacher cannot perceive everything or every issue in a given situation. He therefore tends to choose those issues which have the greatest personal meaning and maximum personal satisfaction of his needs.

The analysis showed that one-half (50 percent) of the teachers chose the category "other" things as the strike issue(s) most meaningful to them. It is noteworthy to again mention that 8 percent of the respondents supplied "teacher professionalism" and "teacher integrity" as their reason for choosing "other." This response was larger than those for such issues as fringe

benefits and discipline. This would seem to indicate that "teacher professionalism" and "teacher integrity" were quite significant issues of the strike.

An analysis of the reported perceptions and behaviors of the strike participants, in light of the strike events, helped make it possible to partially reconstruct the probable state of the teachers' perceptual fields during the strike period. This should highlight some factors which may have precipitated the strike. A model, "Strike Pattern: A Process of Deteriorating Social Relationships" (Figure 1), was used to help facilitate this analysis. (See also Appendix B: Strike Chronology.)

Until early 1974 (A of Figure 1), teachers and district administrators appeared to have experienced adequate social relationships between the two groups. This was true at least to the extent that they were able to effectively reconcile most differences which might have occurred between them. From this, one might conclude that a considerable overlap of perceptual and behavioral frameworks probably existed. The implication of this is that communication between teachers and district administrators tended to take on shared meanings. The overlap of perceptual and behavioral frameworks apparently produced an overall feeling of general understanding and acceptance among the teacher and administrator groups.

In April 1974 (A of Figure 1), communication and effective social relationships between teachers and district administrators began to break down. This manifested itself in the increasing inability of the TEA and the school district to agree upon contract negotiations. The negotiations ended,

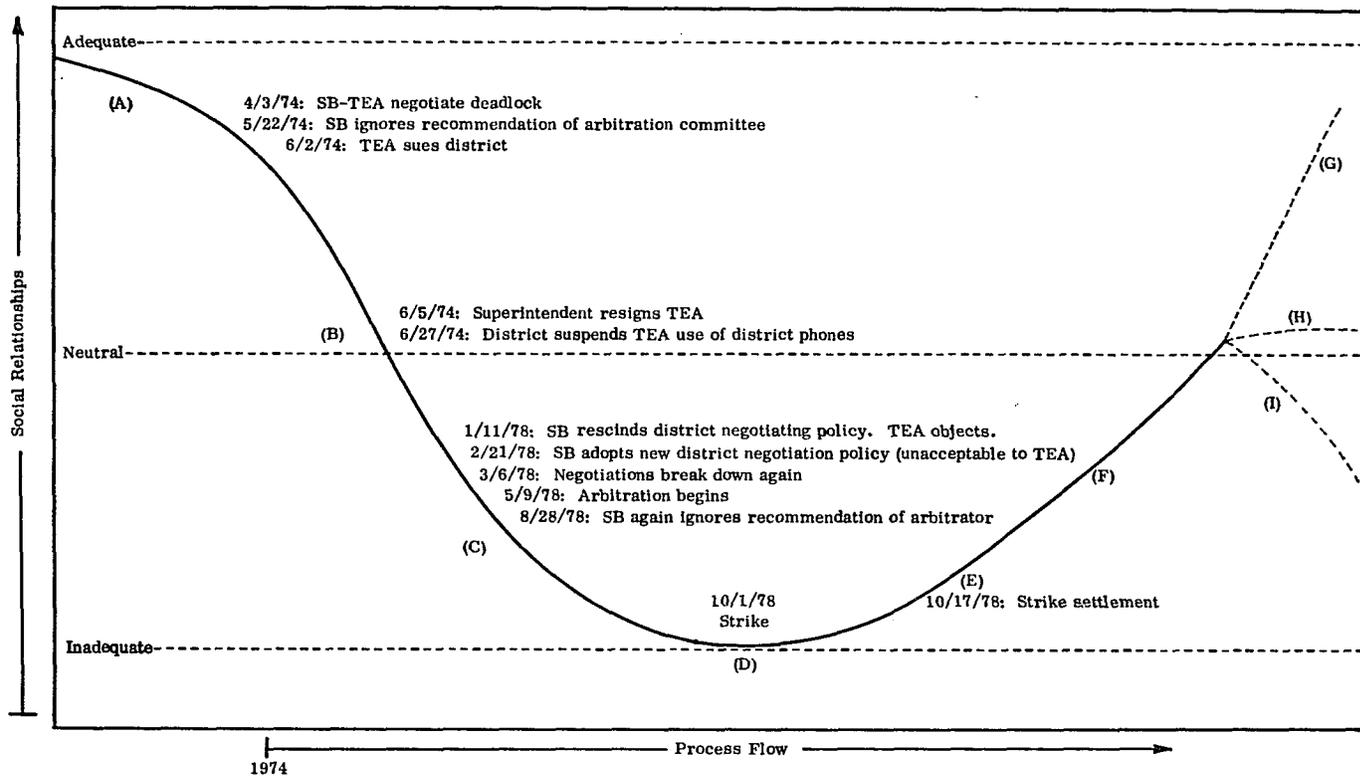


Figure 1. Strike Pattern: A Process of Deteriorating Social Relationships.

Legend: SB = School Board; TEA = Tucson Education Association.

for the first time in the history of the district, in a deadlock. The issue of teacher salary was submitted to an arbitration committee which recommended a salary increase of 7.8 percent for teachers. On May 22, 1974, the board offered the teachers a 6.0 percent salary increase, thus ignoring the recommendation of the arbitration committee. The TEA, in turn, filed a lawsuit against the district on June 2, 1974. The suit alleged that the district had failed to negotiate in "good faith" when it failed to offer the 7.8 percent salary increase as recommended by arbitration. The suit was settled against the TEA. The court ruled (October 14, 1977, by visiting superior court Judge Robert R. Bean, Pinal County) that the board was not bound by arbitration.

Between June 1974 and early 1978 (B of Figure 1), relationships between the TEA and the school district continued to decline. Social relationships between the TEA and the district's administration seemed to have gradually deteriorated, while communication between them tended to be less productive. One symptom of this was the action of the school superintendent in resigning his membership from the TEA three days after the lawsuit was filed. His reason for resigning was given as a possible "conflict of interest." Shortly thereafter, on June 27, 1974, the district suspended the TEA's telephone privileges in the district's central office. The phones had been in use by the TEA for some years and apparently were suspended in retaliation against the lawsuit.

Between the filing of the lawsuit in June 1974 and the court's decision on October 14, 1977, negotiations were still perceived by the TEA to be

unsatisfactory. The teacher group reluctantly accepted the board's contract offer in 1976. On October 23, 1977, only nine days after the court ruled in favor of the district, the TEA stated that it would strike if the teachers were not given an adequate pay increase for the 1977-78 school year.

During the nine months preceding the strike, January 1978 to October 1978 (C of Figure 1), social relationships between the TEA and the district continued to deteriorate. This was evidenced by the reported perceptions of the teachers and the events of that time span. Over three-fourths (79 percent) of all teacher respondents reported perceiving that the factors generating the strike were not the issues themselves, but rather the way the issues were being handled by the school board, superintendent, and central administration. Seventy-seven percent of all respondents also reported perceiving the school board and superintendent as most responsible for causing the strike. It is interesting to note that perceptions, as previously discussed, are unique to each person, and yet the teachers in this study seemed to indicate a high degree of similarity in their perceptions as to the cause of the strike. This would seem to indicate that the teachers were quite united in their perceptions as to the factors generating the strike.

It should be noted at this point that what the teachers perceived as causes of the strike is what they believed to be factual. Whether the issues were really being handled inadequately by the school board and central administration and whether the school board and superintendent were really responsible for causing the strike is of little significance insofar as this study

is concerned. This investigation is concerned with the perceptions of the teachers—not according to the "facts" as they seemed to others, but according to the "facts" as they perceived them to be.

A review of the events indicated some support for the perceptions of teachers in that the TEA and the school board were unable to come to an amicable agreement as to the handling of the issues. On January 11, 1978, the school board rescinded the ten-year-old negotiation policy over the objection of the TEA. The board rejected a TEA request that the old negotiation policy be extended until a new policy was developed. On February 21, 1978, the school board formally adopted a new negotiation policy which was unacceptable to the TEA. One objection to the new policy was that it was too restrictive as to the issues that could be negotiated.

On March 6, 1978, first-round negotiations between the TEA and the board broke down. The inability of the TEA and the board to formulate a negotiation policy acceptable to both was the major difficulty. The negotiation process which followed was not productive and entered into arbitration on May 9, 1978. On May 31, 1978, the arbitrator recommended a salary increase of 6.5 percent for the teachers. This was accepted by the TEA. On June 15, 1978, the board offered the teachers a salary increase of 5.6 percent, thus again ignoring the recommendations of the arbitrator. On August 28, 1978, the TEA rejected the 5.6 salary increase. On September 18, 1978, the teachers began to picket their respective schools, and on October 1, 1978, the TEA voted to strike against the school district.

The strike (D of Figure 1) lasted five days, from Monday, October 2, through Friday, October 6, 1978. The teachers voted to terminate the strike on October 8, 1978, following a consensus of representatives of the board and the TEA. The consensus was adopted by the board on October 17, 1978 (E of Figure 1).

At present, or the period of time after the strike settlement (F of Figure 1), relationships seemed to improve. The direction of future relationships and events would depend upon the productive nature of the developing human relationships within the district. The social relationships could either become increasingly more adequate and productive (G of Figure 1) or they could gradually decline (H or I of Figure 1), in which case further conflicts between the teachers and the district might be predicted.

A significant perception related to the strike issues and causes reported by teachers (83 percent of the striking teachers and 62 percent of the non-striking teachers) was that, prior to striking, they were concerned about threats to their dignity as persons and teachers. This response would seem to indicate that the teachers perceived themselves as being under-valued by significant others, including the school board and superintendent.

It is well-documented in the literature that each person, and thus each teacher, has a need for acceptance and a feeling of personal adequacy. This need affects the direction and drive of one's behavior. If this drive for adequacy and acceptance is challenged or threatened, the person tends to retaliate in defense of self and of his perceptions. As such, the teachers

seemed inclined to strike against the school district in an effort to gain professional status and acceptance as people of individual self-worth and personal dignity.

#### Attitudes Toward Striking

What patterns of perceptions were reported by teachers regarding the impact of the strike on teachers' attitudes toward the act of striking and the actual strike behavior?

Sixty-one percent of all respondents (1,039) reported they did not feel that teacher strikes were unprofessional. Three-fourths (75 percent) of the striking teachers reported that they did not feel that teacher strikes were unprofessional. On the other hand, over half (60 percent) of the non-striking teachers reported that they perceived teacher strikes were unprofessional.

Each teacher tends to develop attitudes and gives meaning to events as a consequence of his interaction with the world in which he lives. The major event in this case is the act of striking. This act carries no meaning in and of itself; the meaning and attitude given this act is a creative thing occurring within each teacher. Thus, each teacher's attitude toward the act of striking is unique and highly personal. These attitudes tend to be significantly influenced by each teacher's drive for personal adequacy and past experience. Such attitudes toward striking will become incorporated into the perceptual framework of the various teachers. Since behavior is determined

by meanings in each person's perceptual field, the actual strike behavior will occur as a function of his perceptual field organization.

The attitudes and perceptions of each person toward events tends to strengthen and become consistent once they are "set" in his perceptual field. These perceptions become each person's "reality." They tend to function as consistent standards for judgment and a frame of reference for behavior.

The strength and consistency of individual perceptions were substantiated in the following responses of teachers. Over three-fourths (82 percent) of both striking and non-striking (78 percent) teachers reported they would again make the same strike decision under similar circumstances in the future. The responses indicated that both striking and non-striking teachers appeared to be committed to their decision to either strike or not to strike. It also seemed to indicate that if the teachers were again faced with the decision to strike or not to strike, over three-fourths would arrive at the same decision as they had previously made.

#### Strike Choices and Influencing Factors

What patterns of perceptions were reported by teachers regarding the impact of the strike on teachers' choices to either strike or not to strike, including the differing factors which inclined them one way or the other.

Seventy-four percent of all respondents (1,266) reported striking. Twenty-six percent (455) reported not striking. The percentages of strike and non-strike teachers in the study varied little from the strike and non-strike

teacher percentages in the total population. This would indicate that the strike behavior statistics of this study were fairly representative of the population.

Each teacher's choice to either strike or not strike was a direct expression of his personal meanings (perceptions) of the strike situation at the moment of action. His reaction or strike behavior was thus a product of what was going on in his unique perceptual field.

It can be stated that the behavior of each teacher was invariably purposeful and relevant to him at the moment of action. Such behavior may have seemed inaccurate or irrelevant to an outsider, but as indicated in the foregoing discussion, the strike situation as it appeared to others is not the cause of one's personal behavior. Sometimes a teacher's behavior, viewed in retrospect, may appear to have been ineffective and unsuitable. At the moment of action or decision, however, for that person, it was the most rational thing he could do. If the teacher had perceived a more rational course of action, doubtless he would have followed it.

Each teacher tends to seek adequacy through identification with those people and groups which seem to hold viewpoints similar to his own. Teachers with common needs and common perceptual and behavioral frameworks tend to draw together as a group in order to better satisfy their needs.

As teachers group and interact, they tend to influence one another. Members of the same group will often develop quite identical values, goals, attitudes, and perceptions. Individual perceptions will often intensify to the

degree that teachers will not only adopt group perceptions and standards as their own, but will vigorously defend these standards and behaviors.

In the following, responses by teachers included in this study are given regarding selected factors which may have influenced their strike decision.

The greatest influence as reported by all respondents regarding their strike decision was the teachers' association (67 percent), followed by teachers in their schools (52 percent), family (43 percent), teachers outside their school (34 percent), the media (29 percent), and building principal (15 percent).

The greatest influence reported by striking teachers regarding their strike decision was the teachers' association (77 percent), followed by teachers in own school (61 percent), family (44 percent), teachers outside own school (43 percent), the media (35 percent), and building principal (14 percent).

The greatest influence reported by non-striking teachers regarding their strike decision was the family (41 percent), followed by the teachers' association (37 percent), teachers in own school (25 percent), building principal (18 percent), the media (12 percent), and the teachers outside own school (11 percent).

The responses indicated that the teachers' association, teachers in their own schools, and family, in that order, were the three most significant groups and persons influencing teachers in their decision to either strike or

not strike. The building principal seemed to have had the least influence upon strike behavior, as compared to other influencing factors discussed in this study.

### Strike Stresses

What patterns of perceptions were reported by teachers regarding the impact of the strike on teachers' feelings of stress occasioned before, during, and after the strike?

Nearly all (90 percent) of the respondents reported they experienced stress during the strike. Fifty percent of the teachers perceived the strike as being highly stressful.

The reported feelings of stress by teachers during the strike period (C and D of Figure 1) indicated that most experienced, to some degree, a narrowing of their perceptual field as a result of stress. This narrowing of their perceptual field evidently produced a degree of tunnel vision in which the strike events and issues became a rather exclusive figure in their perceptual field.

It should be noted that the more stressful the strike situation became, the more each teacher's perceptual field tended to narrow as his attention became focused on the strike events and issues. To some, the attention of the strike was so sharply focused that all else seemed excluded. This narrowing of the perceptual field tended to make it more difficult for some teachers to perceive events from a broader, more reflective perspective.

Their behavior tended to become less flexible, and therefore, less adaptive. This process tended to diminish the teachers' sense of adequacy, affecting their ability to solve problems and function in an efficient manner.

An additional effect of stress on some teachers is the tendency to more vigorously defend existing perceptions. This appears to make them less capable of change, which frequently results in communication breakdown and diminution of adequate social relationships. The events as shown in Figure 1 (and Appendix B) and the reported perceptions of teachers seemed to indicate that this was, in fact, what happened in the case under study.

#### Personal Relationships

What patterns of perceptions were reported by teachers regarding the impact of the strike on teachers' personal relationships with others significant to them in the school system before, during, and after the strike?

Twenty-two percent of all respondents reported losing teacher friends because of the strike. Thirty-two percent of the non-striking teachers and 19 percent of the striking teachers reported losing teacher friends.

Fifty-four percent of all respondents reported gaining teacher friends because of the strike. Sixty-seven percent of the striking teachers and 17 percent of the non-striking teachers reported gaining teacher friends.

Teachers reported their post-strike (E and F of Figure 1) relationships with the teachers in their schools as being more harmonious than before the strike. This was evident since 67 percent of striking teachers reported

gaining teacher friends because of the strike. Striking teachers reported more harmonious relationships with teachers in their schools, and non-striking teachers reported less harmonious relationships.

Teachers reported their post-strike relationships with the people who supervise them to be less harmonious than before the strike. Non-striking teachers reported more harmonious relationships with their supervisors. Striking teachers reported less harmonious relationships with their supervisors.

Teachers reported their post-strike relationships with their students as being more harmonious than before the strike. Both striking and non-striking teachers reported more harmonious relationships with students in their schools.

The post-strike relationships among teachers, supervisors, and students that were reported to be more harmonious may possibly have been in part a consequence of their interactions and shared experiences during the strike. This interaction seemed to initiate the development of common meanings among teachers which tended to help provide an overlapping of their perceptual and behavioral frameworks.

When perceptual and behavioral frameworks overlap, there develops a feeling of acceptance and understanding which tends to contribute significantly to the development of more positive and productive social relationships.

## Outcomes of the Strike

What patterns of perceptions were reported by teachers regarding the impact of the strike on teachers' feelings regarding the outcomes of the strike?

Over half (60 percent) of all respondents reported that the strike produced greater dignity for teachers. Nearly three-fourths (74 percent) of the striking teachers and 18 percent of the non-striking teachers reported this perception.

The perceived outcomes of the strike are those things resulting from the strike which seemed to have personal meaning for teachers. The responses seemed to reinforce the notion of "teacher dignity" being a significant issue and contributing factor generating the teacher strike.

## Concluding Comments and Recommendations

The success of any school district is a matter of how all persons work in harmony to help achieve the goals and objectives of the district. Obviously, no school district can be fully successful if there is a significant amount of internal dissention and bickering. Too much energy which could be applied to the educative process tends to be dissipated on negative and non-productive activities. This not only functions to impede the smooth operation of the school system, but also projects a negative model of interpersonal relationships to students and the attentive public.

When teachers are concerned about being accepted as persons and teachers of dignity, as they reported themselves to be in this study, they tend to be drained of energy in their efforts to achieve such (even to the extent of striking) before they have had a chance to devote that energy to its proper purpose of educating students. Teachers, like all persons, need to feel that their work is important, and they must feel that they are accepted as people of dignity and worth. A feeling of acceptance among teachers is not only essential to productive school relationships, but it has significant educational implications as well. For a teacher to teach acceptance and adequacy to others, there must be some feeling and perception of acceptance and adequacy in the teacher himself.

An understanding of perceptions is significant as behavior tends to be in an important degree an expression of perceptions. People interact every day on the basis of the perceptions and feelings they have, and, in turn, they affect the behavior, feelings, and perceptions of others. Thus, in order to change behavioral patterns, some change or changes in perceptions is needed.

As such, the job of the school district would be to work with present perceptions, feelings, attitudes, and ideas of both teachers and administrators. Thus, there can be an opportunity for all to grow in the direction of greater personal adequacy. This should contribute to the development of overlapping perceptual fields of all persons in the district. Such overlap increases the possibility that the participants will understand each other. This, in turn,

could lead to more adequate and more productive social relationships among persons in the school district.

School administrators are in a strategic position to facilitate those processes which result in shifts in perception and thus bring about more effective personal relationships within the district. They have the opportunity to work with teachers in such a way as to create an atmosphere where teachers can grow both personally and professionally. However, in order to do this, the administrator needs a sensitivity regarding the emotional forces that motivate teacher behavior. He needs to understand that behavior is a function of personal meaning and that to deal effectively with teachers requires a sensitivity and understanding of how things seem to the other person. As such, he needs an understanding, then, of people, of what they are, and why they behave as they do.

In conclusion, it should be mentioned that school boards, superintendents, administrators, and teachers cannot set aside the basic principles of human relationships. They cannot be suspended or ignored, but only operationalized positively or negatively, the results of which will certainly have important influences on the relationships in the district.

### Recommendations

After analyzing the findings and conclusions of this study, the following recommendations are proposed:

1. A school system, in order to maximize the human potential of both students and staff, should develop and maintain a deep philosophical

commitment to the worthiness and dignity of all persons. Special effort should be directed to the self-enhancement of each person in the school district.

2. A continuous and effective communication process should be developed whereby school district administrator and teacher representatives can meet and interact in an atmosphere where every person is encouraged to express his viewpoints.
3. Teachers and school district officials should have an adequate set of board-adopted policies providing orderly processes for dealing with and amicably resolving disputes and differences between them.
4. The policy that is adopted should result from the widest possible participation of all concerned groups throughout the community and the school district.
5. The adopted policy should clearly ensure a balance of bargaining strength in which stresses resulting from conflict can be carefully and thoughtfully diminished while emphasizing the value of positive human relationships.
6. Finally, and foremost, the school district, including the school board, administrators, and teaching staff should carefully plan and effectively implement a program for continuous improvement of human relationships throughout the district.

APPENDIX A

TEACHER STRIKE QUESTIONNAIRE

TEACHER STRIKE PROJECT

© Wm. D. Barnes and Frazier Barbery April, 1979

I am requesting your voluntary participation in the completion of this questionnaire. The purposes and objectives of this study are to identify the events, perceptions, behaviors, and outcomes of the recent Tucson teacher strike. I anticipate that the results of the study could be of real use in furthering productive relationships among school people locally and beyond.

If you decide to participate, please answer as many of the questions as you are able to answer with confidence. You do not have to answer all of the questions. Completion of this questionnaire will indicate your consent as a willing participant in this study. All data received will be treated with anonymity and confidentiality.

Your cooperation is solicited in filling out this questionnaire. It should take about ten minutes of your time.

Frazier H. Barbery

**PROJECT APPROVED  
BY TEA EXECUTIVE BOARD  
AND REPRESENTATIVE ASSEMBLY**

I. BACKGROUND INFORMATION

Mark appropriate blocks or spaces

1. Teaching Area      Elementary Teacher       Junior High Teacher   
    High School Teacher       Support Services
2. Age      20-24       30-34       40-44       50-54       Over 60   
    25-29       35-39       45-49       55-59
3. Male       Female
4. Marital Status      Married       Single
5. Indicate Number of Dependents (exclude yourself): \_\_\_\_\_
6. Indicate Total Number of Years of Teaching: \_\_\_\_\_
7. Indicate Number of Years Teaching in Tucson Unified School District One: \_\_\_\_\_
8. Tenure      Yes       No
9. Member of Professional Organization      AFT       TEA   
    NEA       NONE   
    Other  \_\_\_\_\_
10. Education Level      Bachelor's       +15       +30       +45   
    Master's       +15       +30       +45       +60   
    Doctorate

11. Did you at anytime walk the informational picket line prior to the strike vote?  
Yes  No
12. Did you attend the meeting at which the strike vote was taken?  
Yes  No
13. Did you vote to strike?  
Yes  No
14. Strike Behavior  
 I was on strike - I did NOT cross picket line.  
 I was NOT on strike - I did cross picket line.  
 I was NOT on strike, although, I did NOT cross picket line.
15. Change in Strike Behavior (check only if applicable)  
 NOT on strike at beginning, but chose to strike later.  
 On strike at the beginning, but chose to return to work later.
16. Did you have an additional source of income that would have seen you through the strike?  
Yes  No
17. If married, does your spouse teach? Yes  No
18. If your spouse teaches in Tucson District One, did spouse strike?  
Yes  No
19. Did you at anytime walk the picket line?  
Yes  No
20. Did you attend the meeting for the termination of strike?  
Yes  No
21. Did you vote to terminate the strike? Yes  No

II. ISSUES AND CAUSES

Check only one answer for each question

1. I perceive the major issue of the strike to be:
  1. salary
  2. fringe benefits
  3. class size
  4. discipline
  5. other: \_\_\_\_\_
  
2. I feel the strike was the result of:
  1. the issues mentioned above (question 1)
  2. the way the Board and the District's central administration handled the issues
  3. the way the teachers association handled the issues
  4. other: \_\_\_\_\_
  
3. Who do you feel was most responsible for causing the strike:
  1. school board
  2. superintendent
  3. teachers association
  4. district's negotiating team
  5. teacher's negotiating team
  6. undecided
  
4. Did you feel that there were threats to your dignity as a person and a teacher prior to the strike vote?
  1. very much so
  2. somewhat so
  3. had no such feeling

III. INFLUENCES

Check only one answer for each question

5. The attitude of my building principal toward the strike was:
  1. very supportive
  2. supportive
  3. neutral
  4. unsupportive
  5. very unsupportive

6. My building principal:

- 1. greatly influenced my decision to strike
- 2. somewhat influenced my decision to strike
- 3. had no influence
- 4. somewhat influenced my decision not to strike
- 5. greatly influenced my decision not to strike

7. The teachers in my school:

- 1. greatly influenced my decision to strike
- 2. somewhat influenced my decision to strike
- 3. had no influence
- 4. somewhat influenced my decision not to strike
- 5. greatly influenced my decision not to strike

8. The teachers outside my school:

- 1. greatly influenced my decision to strike
- 2. somewhat influenced my decision to strike
- 3. had no influence
- 4. somewhat influenced my decision not to strike
- 5. greatly influenced my decision not to strike

9. The teachers associations:

- 1. greatly influenced my decision to strike
- 2. somewhat influenced my decision to strike
- 3. had no influence
- 4. somewhat influenced my decision not to strike
- 5. greatly influenced my decision not to strike

10. My family:

- 1. greatly influenced my decision to strike
- 2. somewhat influenced my decision to strike
- 3. had no influence
- 4. somewhat influenced my decision not to strike
- 5. greatly influenced my decision not to strike

11. The media:

- 1. greatly influenced my decision to strike
- 2. somewhat influenced my decision to strike
- 3. had no influence
- 4. somewhat influenced my decision not to strike
- 5. greatly influenced my decision not to strike

IV. STRESSES

Check only one answer for each question

12. I found the strike:
- 1. highly stressful
  - 2. moderately stressful
  - 3. not stressful
13. I experienced the most stress:
- 1. before strike vote
  - 2. after strike vote Sunday and prior to Monday's strike
  - 3. during strike
  - 4. immediately after strike
  - 5. experienced no stress
  - 6. uncertain
14. Was the actual strike experience more stressful to you than you expected?
- 1. yes
  - 2. no
15. My chief worry during the strike was:
- 1. meeting financial obligations
  - 2. loss of job
  - 3. break with teacher friends
  - 4. administrative retaliation
  - 5. student disapproval
  - 6. students falling behind
  - 7. family disapproval
  - 8. effect on pending retirement
  - 9. other: \_\_\_\_\_
16. When were you most uncertain about your decision to either strike or not to strike?
- 1. before strike vote
  - 2. after strike vote Sunday and prior to Monday's strike
  - 3. during strike
  - 4. after strike
  - 5. same level of uncertainty throughout
  - 6. at no time was I uncertain

V. RELATIONSHIPS

Check only one answer for each question

17. Did you lose teacher friends because of the strike?
- \_\_\_ 1. yes  
\_\_\_ 2. no  
\_\_\_ 3. uncertain
18. Did you gain teacher friends because of the strike?
- \_\_\_ 1. yes  
\_\_\_ 2. no  
\_\_\_ 3. uncertain
19. My post-strike relationships with the teachers in my school are:
- \_\_\_ 1. more harmonious  
\_\_\_ 2. less harmonious  
\_\_\_ 3. about the same as before the strike
20. My post-strike relationships with the people who supervise me in my school are:
- \_\_\_ 1. more harmonious  
\_\_\_ 2. less harmonious  
\_\_\_ 3. about the same as before the strike
21. My post-strike relationships with the students in my school are:
- \_\_\_ 1. more harmonious  
\_\_\_ 2. less harmonious  
\_\_\_ 3. about the same as before the strike

VI. STRIKE PERCEPTIONS

Check only one answer for each question

22. When did teachers appear most unified?
- \_\_\_ 1. before strike vote  
\_\_\_ 2. after strike vote Sunday and prior to Monday's strike  
\_\_\_ 3. during strike  
\_\_\_ 4. immediately after strike  
\_\_\_ 5. not sure
23. Teachers association leadership during the negotiation and strike period appeared to be:
- \_\_\_ 1. good  
\_\_\_ 2. fair  
\_\_\_ 3. poor  
\_\_\_ 4. do not know

24. Do you feel teacher strikes are unprofessional?
- \_\_\_ 1. yes  
\_\_\_ 2. no  
\_\_\_ 3. uncertain
25. Under similar circumstances, would you again make the same decision to either strike or not to strike?
- \_\_\_ 1. yes  
\_\_\_ 2. no  
\_\_\_ 3. undecided
26. I feel the strike produced:
- \_\_\_ 1. resolution of the issues involved  
\_\_\_ 2. greater dignity for teachers  
\_\_\_ 3. both 1 and 2  
\_\_\_ 4. no gains  
\_\_\_ 5. unfavorable results  
\_\_\_ 6. uncertain  
\_\_\_ 7. other: \_\_\_\_\_
27. Which of the following had the most influence on your decision(s) prior to, during, and after the strike?
- Indicate by number in order of significance with (1) being the most significant. Rank only four (4).
- \_\_\_ 1 media  
\_\_\_ 2 family  
\_\_\_ 3 friends  
\_\_\_ 4 fellow teachers  
\_\_\_ 5 building principal  
\_\_\_ 6 community  
\_\_\_ 7 central administration  
\_\_\_ 8 teacher association  
\_\_\_ 9 issues involved  
\_\_\_ 10 other: \_\_\_\_\_
28. The second phase of this study will be in-depth interviews with certain individuals who respond to this questionnaire.
- Your willingness to participate in the second phase would be appreciated. Please give your home phone if you would like to participate. \_\_\_\_\_  
home phone
29. Suggestions for additional investigation regarding the strike:
- \_\_\_\_\_  
\_\_\_\_\_  
\_\_\_\_\_

<p>Thank you for your participation in completing this questionnaire. Your help is appreciated.</p>
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## APPENDIX B

### STRIKE CHRONOLOGY

The following list represents significant events which occurred prior to the Tucson teacher strike.<sup>1</sup>

April 3, 1974: Negotiations between the TEA and the school board ended, for the first time ever, in a deadlock. The negotiations entered into arbitration.

May 16, 1974: The arbitration committee suggested a salary increase of 7.8 percent for teachers.

May 22, 1974: The school board offered a 6.0 percent increase to teachers, thus rejecting the recommendation of the arbitration committee.

June 2, 1974: The Tucson Education Association (TEA) files a lawsuit against the school district. The suit alleged that the district failed to negotiate in "good faith" when it failed to offer the 7.8 percent salary increase to teachers as recommended by arbitration committee.

June 5, 1974: The school superintendent resigns from the TEA as a result of the lawsuit filed by the TEA against the district.

June 27, 1974: The school district suspends the TEA's telephone privileges at the district's central office.

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<sup>1</sup>This chronology is part of a forthcoming study being conducted by Paul Hoffman, graduate student, The University of Arizona, Department of Secondary Education, 1978-80.

- October 14, 1977: Lawsuit against the district was settled by visiting superior court Judge Robert R. Bean (Pinal County) against the TEA. He ruled that the board was not bound by arbitration.
- October 21, 1977: The TEA threatens action including a possible strike against the school district if the teachers do not receive an adequate pay increase for the 1977-78 school year.
- December 5, 1977: The TEA protests the development of a new school district negotiation policy.
- January 11, 1978: The school board formally rescinds the ten-year-old negotiation policy. The TEA requests that the board extend the policy for one year while a new policy is developed. The board refuses to extend the old negotiation policy.
- February 21, 1978: The school board formally adopts (4-1 vote) a new negotiation policy. The new policy is unacceptable to the TEA.
- March 6, 1978: The first-round negotiations break down as the TEA feels that the board wishes to limit the topics of discussion.
- March 22, 1978: The TEA rejects a salary offer by the board of 4.6 percent.
- April 10, 1978: The TEA pickets the school district administrative headquarters, employing anti-board picket signs.
- May 9, 1978: Arbitration begins between the TEA and the school district.
- May 31, 1978: Arbitration recommends a 6.5 percent salary increase for teachers. This was accepted by the TEA.
- June 15, 1978: The school board offers the teachers a 5.6 percent pay increase. This constitutes another rejection of the arbitrators.
- August 28, 1978: The TEA rejects the board's offer of a 5.6 percent salary increase for teachers.
- September 18, 1978: The teachers begin to picket their respective schools. A TEA poll shows that 82 percent of the teachers would strike against the district.
- October 1, 1978: The TEA votes to strike against the school district.

October 2, 1978: The first day of the teacher strike.

October 8, 1978: The teachers vote to terminate the strike.

October 17, 1978: The adoption of consensus agreement between the TEA and the school board.

**APPENDIX C**

**CROSTABULATION DATA**

Table C1. Crosstabulation of "My Building Principal Influenced Me" (QIII-6) by Strike Behavior.<sup>a</sup>

Building Principal Influenced Me	Strike Behavior <sup>b</sup>	
	Strike	Non-Strike
Greatly to Strike	38 (3.1)	1 (.2)
Somewhat to Strike	121 (9.8)	6 (1.3)
Had No Influence	1,063 (86.0)	371 (82.4)
Somewhat Not to Strike	10 (.8)	55 (12.2)
Greatly Not to Strike	4 (.3)	17 (3.8)
(Missing Responses: 42)		

<sup>a</sup> Chi-square = 186.474, df = 4, p < .0001.

<sup>b</sup> Column percentage in parentheses.

Table C2. Crosstabulation of "Teachers in My School Influenced Me"  
(QIII-7) by Strike Behavior. <sup>a</sup>

Teachers in My School Influenced Me	Strike Behavior <sup>b</sup>	
	Strike	Non-Strike
Greatly to Strike	207 (16.7)	6 (1.3)
Somewhat to Strike	542 (43.8)	16 (3.6)
Had No Influence	480 (38.8)	332 (74.6)
Somewhat Not to Strike	8 (.6)	62 (13.9)
Greatly Not to Strike	1 (.1)	29 (6.5)
(Missing Responses: 45)		

<sup>a</sup>Chi-square = 522.669, df = 4, p < .0001.

<sup>b</sup>Column percentage in parentheses.

Table C3. Crosstabulation of "Teachers Outside My School Influenced Me"  
(QIII-8) by Strike Behavior.<sup>a</sup>

Teachers Outside My School Influenced Me	Strike Behavior <sup>b</sup>	
	Strike	Non-Strike
Greatly to Strike	91 (7.3)	3 (.7)
Somewhat to Strike	430 (34.7)	8 (1.8)
Had No Influence	709 (57.2)	400 (89.3)
Somewhat Not to Strike	4 (.3)	20 (4.5)
Greatly Not to Strike	5 (.4)	17 (3.8)
(Missing Responses: 41)		

<sup>a</sup>Chi-square = 283.781, df = 4, p < .0001.

<sup>b</sup>Column percentage in parentheses.

Table C4. Crosstabulation of "The Teachers' Association Influenced Me" (QIII-9) by Strike Behavior.<sup>a</sup>

Teachers' Association Influenced Me	Strike Behavior <sup>b</sup>	
	Strike	Non-Strike
Greatly to Strike	336 (27.1)	11 (2.5)
Somewhat to Strike	604 (48.8)	10 (2.3)
Had No Influence	280 (22.6)	279 (62.8)
Somewhat Not to Strike	11 (.9)	77 (17.3)
Greatly Not to Strike	7 (.6)	67 (15.1)
(Missing Responses: 46)		

<sup>a</sup>Chi-square = 775.106, df = 4, p < .0001.

<sup>b</sup>Column percentage in parentheses.

Table C5. Crosstabulation of "My Family Influenced Me" (QIII-10) by Strike Behavior.<sup>a</sup>

Family Influenced Me	Strike Behavior <sup>b</sup>	
	Strike	Non-Strike
Greatly to Strike	167 (13.6)	9 (2.0)
Somewhat to Strike	341 (27.8)	8 (1.8)
Had No Influence	689 (56.2)	260 (58.7)
Somewhat Not to Strike	23 (1.9)	96 (21.7)
Greatly Not to Strike	7 (.6)	70 (15.8)
(Missing Responses: 58)		

<sup>a</sup>Chi-square = 489.703, df = 4, p < .0001.

<sup>b</sup>Column percentage in parentheses.

Table C6. Crosstabulation of "The Media Influenced Me" (QIII-11) by Strike Behavior.<sup>a</sup>

Media Influenced Me	Strike Behavior <sup>b</sup>	
	Strike	Non-Strike
Greatly to Strike	63 (5.1)	3 (.7)
Somewhat to Strike	363 (29.2)	19 (4.3)
Had No Influence	812 (65.3)	390 (87.6)
Somewhat Not to Strike	3 (.2)	26 (5.8)
Greatly Not to Strike	2 (.2)	7 (1.6)
(Missing Responses: 40)		

<sup>a</sup>Chi-square = 201.218, df = 4, p < .0001.

<sup>b</sup>Column percentage in parentheses.

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